

UNIVERSIDAD COMPLUTENSE DE MADRID
FACULTAD DE FILOLOGÍA



TESIS DOCTORAL

Positive aspects of negative lexical transfer

Aspectos positivos de la transferencia léxica negativa

MEMORIA PARA OPTAR AL GRADO DE DOCTORA

PRESENTADA POR

María Patricia Enjuto Quinn

DIRECTOR

Juan Pedro Rica Peromingo

Madrid, 2018



Positive aspects of negative lexical transfer

Aspectos positivos de la transferencia léxica negativa

M. Patricia Enjuto Quinn

Director: Dr. Juan Pedro Rica Peromingo

Doctorado en Lingüística Inglesa

Universidad Complutense de Madrid

September 2017

Abstract

This thesis seeks to answer whether negative lexical transfers used in oral speech have a negative effect over communication. In the field of Applied Linguistics, it has been argued that positive lexical transfers facilitate foreign language acquisition and communication, while negative lexical transfers interfere with communication. This thesis questions this premise and the use of the term “negative” to refer to this type of lexical transfer.

This research analyses the oral speech of twenty USA L1-English speakers-learners of L2-Spanish. It identifies, classifies and explains the lexical transfers found in the participants’ speech. Of the total of 1013 lexical transfer that are found, 25.96% are positive and 74.04% are negative. Twenty native Spanish speakers are asked to listen to the lexical transfers made by the USA participants so as to examine the effect such lexical transfers have on communication and whether they are understood. The findings show that L1-Spanish speakers actually understand the transfers made by USA L1-English speakers-learners of L2-Spanish, in 80.48% of the total of negative lexical transfers used by the twenty USA participants. This thesis concludes that what has been called “negative” lexical transfers in the field of Applied Linguistics actually do not have a negative effect over communication and, therefore, proposes that its naming be reconsidered.

Acknowledgements

This adventure would not have been possible without the support of so many individuals, many close to me, but others mostly unrelated. The forty participants, without whose help I would have been totally unable to carry out this research, thank you.

I would like to show my profound appreciation to my supervisor at UCM, Professor Juan Pedro Rica, for being my guide and giving me wings to fly. Thank you for letting me see the path to follow while allowing me complete freedom. Your constant encouragement has been fundamental, a driving force. Those meetings in which you made me feel I was doing something important and worthwhile will certainly be missed.

I would like to thank those who were once my colleagues at UAN. Most importantly to my friend, Professor Marta Genís, for whom I feel infinite respect. Thank you for your interest, and guidance, for backing me, believing in me and letting it show. Professor Elena Orduna, for your consideration, support and truthful trust. Professor Pilar Agustín Llach, for your generosity in providing me with documents and for having my same suspicion and wanting to share.

I very much want to thank Professor Marta Baralo for introducing me into the worlds of idiosyncratic dialects, interlanguage and pidgin language, all of which became the origin of my fascination with transfer; also, Professor Yolanda Cerezo for believing and encouraging me along the way.

I thank Paloma for having patiently helped me with the structural part of this research I had no idea how to cope with, for your generosity, hard work and patience facing so many variations and changes of plan.

Thanks also go to my friends Maria and Jenny, for your support, your friendship and for having the patience to listen to me.

I want to give special thanks to my mother for instilling in me an academic interest, an interest which has turned into a challenge, thank you. I am sad that you are not able to acknowledge this step in my life.

Finally, and most significantly, to my family, my two children and their consorts, of whom I am infinitely proud of. For always believing in me despite all the difficulties found in our path. To Regina for being who you are and the way you are, unbeatable. Your brilliant head, your magnificent soul and your unbeatable hard work have served me as a guide all along these years. Thank you for all your love and companionship, your encouragement and for always being there. To Diego for being who you are and the way you are, insuperable. Your clarity of mind, your dazzling wisdom, your human warmth, your hard work, your charming and revealing smile, and your formidable love have always encouraged me to keep going. To Frido, for putting up with my multiple visits always with a fantastic grin on your face. To Carmen, for always making me feel liked and wanted. To Patrick, thank you for believing in me. And finally, to Clara, thank you for your tenderness, charm and exceeding happiness.

Table of contents

| | |
|--|-----------|
| Abstract | 3 |
| Acknowledgements | 4 |
| Chapter One | 17 |
| Introduction | 17 |
| Chapter Two | 23 |
| Theoretical background | 23 |
| 2.1 Applied linguistics..... | 25 |
| 2.2 Communicative Competence and Lexical Knowledge | 27 |
| 2.2.1 Communicative Competence..... | 28 |
| 2.2.2 Lexical knowledge..... | 30 |
| 2.2.2.1. What is a word? What does knowing a word mean? | 30 |
| 2.2.2.2 Why should learners learn words? | 40 |
| 2.2.3 Components of lexical knowledge | 43 |
| 2.3 Definition of linguistic transfer | 44 |
| 2.3.1. Linguistic transfer..... | 44 |
| 2.3.2 Interference | 48 |
| 2.3.3 Cross-linguistic influence | 50 |
| 2.3.4 Linguistic proximity determines the likeliness of transfer | 51 |
| 2.3.5 Types of linguistic transfer | 54 |
| 2.3.5.1 Positive transfer | 54 |
| 2.3.5.2 Negative transfer | 55 |
| 2.3.5.3 Other types of transfer | 58 |
| 2.4 Transfer history | 59 |
| 2.4.1 Behaviorist learning theory | 60 |
| 2.4.1.1 Contrastive Analysis | 65 |
| 2.4.1.2 Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis | 65 |
| 2.4.1.3 Interlanguage..... | 68 |
| 2.4.2 Innateness theory | 69 |
| 2.4.3 Cognitivist theory | 71 |
| 2.5 Lexical transfer..... | 72 |

| | |
|---|------------|
| 2.5.1 Positive and negative lexical transfer | 77 |
| 2.5.2 Cognates | 80 |
| 2.5.3 Types of lexical transfer | 83 |
| 2.5.3.1 Lexemic transfer | 86 |
| 2.5.3.2 Lemmatic transfer | 88 |
| 2.6 Lexical transfer positive for communication | 89 |
| 2.7 Relevance for teaching | 92 |
| Chapter three | 95 |
| Methodology | 95 |
| 3.1.- Research Questions | 97 |
| 3.2.- Main aim and specific aims of the present research paper | 98 |
| 3.3.- Research design | 99 |
| 3.4.- Intervention context, description of participants and sample choice. | 100 |
| 3.5.- Description of variables | 102 |
| 3.6.- Data collection | 102 |
| 3.6.1.-Interview recording: | 103 |
| 3.6.2.- Spanish speakers' check:..... | 103 |
| 3.7.- Type of analysis | 105 |
| Chapter Four..... | 107 |
| Analysis..... | 107 |
| 4.1- Lexical transfers | 109 |
| 4.1.1- Positive lexical transfer | 111 |
| 4.1.1.1- Participant 1 (P ₁)..... | 111 |
| 4.1.1.2.- Participant 2 (P ₂)..... | 115 |
| 4.1.1.3.- Participant 3 (P ₃)..... | 118 |
| 4.1.1.4.- Participant 4 (P ₄)..... | 120 |
| 4.1.1.5.- Participant 5 (P ₅)..... | 121 |
| 4.1.1.6.- Participant 6 (P ₆)..... | 123 |
| 4.1.1.7.- Participant 7 (P ₇)..... | 128 |
| 4.1.1.8.- Participant 8 (P ₈)..... | 130 |
| 4.1.1.9.- Participant 9 (P ₉)..... | 131 |
| 4.1.1.10.- Participant 10 (P ₁₀) | 135 |

| | |
|--|-----|
| 4.1.1.11.- Participant 11 (P ₁₁) | 136 |
| 4.1.1.12.- Participant 12 (P ₁₂) | 137 |
| 4.1.1.13.- Participant 13 (P ₁₃) | 138 |
| 4.1.1.14.- Participant 14 (P ₁₄) | 139 |
| 4.1.1.15.- Participant 15 (P ₁₅) | 140 |
| 4.1.1.16.- Participant 16 (P ₁₆) | 141 |
| 4.1.1.17.- Participant 17 (P ₁₇) | 141 |
| 4.1.1.18.- Participant 18 (P ₁₈) | 143 |
| 4.1.1.19.- Participant 19 (P ₁₉) | 144 |
| 4.1.1.20.- Participant 20 (P ₂₀) | 145 |
| 4.2.-Negative lexical transfer | 154 |
| 4.2.1.- Participant 1 (P ₁) | 155 |
| 4.2.2.- Participant 2 (P ₂) | 161 |
| 4.2.3.- Participant 3 (P ₃) | 169 |
| 4.2.4.-Participant 4 (P ₄) | 176 |
| 4.2.5.- Participant 5 (P ₅) | 183 |
| 4.2.6.- Participant 6 (P ₆) | 190 |
| 4.2.7.- Participant 7 (P ₇) | 206 |
| 4.2.8.- Participant 8 (P ₈) | 214 |
| 4.2.9.- Participant 9 (P ₉) | 220 |
| 4.2.10.- Participant 10 (P ₁₀)..... | 229 |
| 4.2.11.- Participant 11 (P ₁₁)..... | 235 |
| 4.2.12.- Participant 12 (P ₁₂)..... | 238 |
| 4.2.13.- Participant 13 (P ₁₃)..... | 243 |
| 4.2.14.- Participant 14 (P ₁₄)..... | 250 |
| 4.2.15.- Participant 15 (P ₁₅)..... | 251 |
| 4.2.16.- Participant 16 (P ₁₆)..... | 254 |
| 4.2.17.- Participant 17 (P ₁₇)..... | 258 |
| 4.2.18.- Participant 18 (P ₁₈)..... | 262 |
| 4.2.19.-Participant 19 (P ₁₉)..... | 265 |
| 4.2.20.- Participant 20 (P ₂₀)..... | 268 |

| | |
|---|------------|
| 4.3.-Results of spanish participants' check | 290 |
| 4.3.1.-Spanish participant (SP1) | 290 |
| 4.3.2.-Spanish participant (SP2) | 292 |
| 4.3.3.-Spanish participant (SP3) | 294 |
| 4.3.4.-Spanish participant (SP4) | 295 |
| 4.3.5.-Spanish participant (SP5) | 297 |
| 4.3.6.-Spanish participant (SP6) | 298 |
| 4.3.7.-Spanish participant (SP7) | 301 |
| 4.3.8.-Spanish participant (SP8) | 303 |
| 4.3.9.-Spanish participant (SP9) | 304 |
| 4.3.10.-Spanish participant (SP10) | 306 |
| 4.3.11.-Spanish participant (SP11) | 307 |
| 4.3.12.-Spanish participant (SP12) | 308 |
| 4.3.13.-Spanish participant (SP13) | 309 |
| 4.3.14.-Spanish participant (SP14) | 310 |
| 4.3.15.-Spanish participant (SP15) | 311 |
| 4.3.16.-Spanish participant (SP16) | 312 |
| 4.3.17.-Spanish participant (SP17) | 313 |
| 4.3.18.-Spanish participant (SP18) | 314 |
| 4.3.19.-Spanish participant (SP19) | 315 |
| 4.3.20.-Spanish participant (SP20) | 316 |
| Chapter Five..... | 327 |
| Results of analysis | 327 |
| 5.1.-Results | 329 |
| 5.1.1.-Positive lexical transfer | 330 |
| 5.1.1.1.-Collocational transfers | 332 |
| 5.1.1.2.-Cognates | 333 |
| 5.1.1.3.-Calques | 333 |
| 5. 1. 2.-Negative lexical transfer..... | 334 |
| 5.1.2.1.-Borrowing | 336 |
| 5.1.2.2.-Semantic extension | 338 |

| | |
|--|------------|
| 5.1.2.3.-Collocational transfer | 339 |
| 5.1.2.4.-Calque..... | 340 |
| 5.1.2.5.-Coinage of New word..... | 342 |
| 5.1.2.6.-False Cognate | 346 |
| 5.1.2.7.-Subcategorization transfer | 346 |
| 5.1.2.8.-Coinage of New expression..... | 347 |
| 5.1.3.-General results of lexical transfer analysis..... | 348 |
| 5.2.- Results of Spanish speakers' check | 355 |
| 5.2.1.-Positive Lexical transfer..... | 355 |
| 5.2.2.-Negative Lexical transfer | 355 |
| 5.2.2.1.-Lexemic Negative Lexical transfers | 356 |
| 5.2.2.2.-Lemmatic Negative Lexical transfers..... | 356 |
| 5.2.3.- General results of Spanish speakers' check..... | 357 |
| Chapter Six..... | 359 |
| Conclusions..... | 359 |
| 6.1.- Answers to research questions | 361 |
| 6.2.- Final conclusions | 368 |
| 6.3.- Didactic approach | 373 |
| 6.4.- Research limitations and further research..... | 374 |
| Bibliography..... | 375 |
| Appendix 1..... | 391 |
| Questionnaire | 391 |
| Appendix 2..... | 393 |
| Photographs | 393 |
| Appendix 3..... | 401 |
| Val.Es.Co transcription system | 401 |
| Summary of dissertation | 405 |
| Positive aspects of negative lexical transfer | 405 |
| Introduction | 405 |
| Objectives..... | 406 |
| Results | 407 |

| | |
|---|------------|
| Resumen de la tesis | 411 |
| Aspectos positivos de la transferencia léxica negativa | 411 |
| Introducción | 411 |
| Objetivos | 412 |
| Conclusiones | 415 |
| Curriculum Vitae..... | 417 |

List of tables

| | |
|--|-----|
| Table 1.- Summary of positive lexical transfers found in this research | 153 |
| Table 2.-Summary of negative lexical transfers found in this research, and final total numbers in each category | 288 |
| Table 3.- Results of Spanish speaker 1 compreshension check | 291 |
| Table 4.- Results of Spanish speaker 2 compreshension check | 292 |
| Table 5.- Results of Spanish speaker 3 compreshension check | 294 |
| Table 6.- Results of Spanish speaker 4 compreshension check | 296 |
| Table 7.- Results of Spanish speaker 5 compreshension check | 297 |
| Table 8.- Results of Spanish speaker 6 compreshension check | 299 |
| Table 9.- Results of Spanish speaker 7 compreshension check | 302 |
| Table 10.- Results of Spanish speaker 8 compreshension check | 303 |
| Table 11.- Results of Spanish speaker 9 compreshension check | 304 |
| Table 12.- Results of Spanish speaker 10 compreshension check | 306 |
| Table 13.- Results of Spanish speaker 11 compreshension check | 307 |
| Table 14.- Results of Spanish speaker 12 compreshension check | 308 |
| Table 15.- Results of Spanish speaker 13 compreshension check | 309 |
| Table 16.- Results of Spanish speaker 14 compreshension check | 310 |
| Table 17.- Results of Spanish speaker 15 compreshension check | 311 |
| Table 18.- Results of Spanish speaker 16 compreshension check | 312 |
| Table 19.- Results of Spanish speaker 17 compreshension check | 313 |
| Table 20.- Results of Spanish speaker 18 compreshension check | 314 |
| Table 21.- Results of Spanish speaker 19 compreshension check | 315 |
| Table 22.- Results of Spanish speaker 20 compreshension check | 316 |
| Table 23.-Negative lexical transfers understood by SPs | 322 |
| Table 24.-Negative lexical transfers not understood or understood mistakenly by SPs | 325 |
| Table 25.- Total numbers of lexical transfers per category | 350 |
| Table 26.- Contrast between use of borrowings and coinages | 351 |
| Table 27.-Negative Lexical Transfer per participant..... | 353 |
| Table 28.-Negative Lexical Transfers committed with regards to time spent in the interview | 354 |
| Table 29.- Total of Lexemic and Lemmatic Negative Lexical transfers | 357 |
| Table 30.-Total of negative lexical transfers that were understood, not understood, and omitted..... | 358 |
| Table 31.- References to negative lexical transfer by certain authors..... | 372 |

List of graphs

| | |
|--|-----|
| Graph 1.- Representation of the numbert of positive lexical transfers found in this research | 154 |
| Graph 2.-Representation in percentage of the negative lexical transfers found in this study | 289 |

List of figures

| | |
|----------------|-----|
| Figure 1 | 329 |
| Figure 2..... | 331 |
| Figure 3..... | 335 |

List of Acronyms

| | |
|------|--|
| CA | Contrastive Analysis |
| CAH | Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis |
| CEFR | Common European Framework of Reference for Languages |
| CEHI | Centro de Estudios Hispánicos |
| CLI | Cross Linguistic Influence |
| EA | Error Analysis |
| L1 | First language/Mother tongue |
| L2 | Second Language |
| L3 | Third Language |
| LAD | Language Acquisition Device |
| NL | Native Language |
| P | Participant |
| PC | Personal Computer |
| SLA | Second Language Acquisition |
| SP | Spanish Participant |
| TLA | Target Language Acquisition |
| USA | United States of America |

Chapter One

Introduction

¿Estuviste en la manifestación de ayer? ¿Viste cuanta gente fue? (Researcher)
*Solamente vi el comienzo de la gente, no **el turno**. (Participant 18)*

The lexical transfer shown above took me a while to identify but once I did, and realized why the participant had produced the noun “*turno*”, I could not resist carrying out this study.

My fascination for the linguistic phenomenon of lexical transfers in the oral speech of foreign language learners stems from my professional savvy and from my experience as a bilingual speaker. Along my professional career, I have witnessed infinite lexical transfers from speakers of first language (L1)-Spanish learners of second language (L2)-English, from my Spanish translation pupils, who, at first shocked me, by the attachment they experienced to L2-English terms, and from myself, a bilingual speaker. As such, I am occasionally befuddled when I find myself wondering whether the term I am using is a transfer or not, regardless the language I speak.

I have always felt an exquisite attraction to the idea of studying the effect of lexical influence of one language over another, and questioned whether this effect actually has a positive communicative effect or if, on the contrary, the consequence is that it hinders communication. I felt attracted, mainly, to studying the effect that L1-English has over L2-Spanish at a lexical level because it represented a new challenge. The result is this research. A research that aims to determine whether negative lexical transfer truly has a negative effect over communication.

I have focused on lexicon as I believe it to be the basis upon which communication is built, words are the capital linguistic items of expression, those, which students of a foreign language find highly complex and a never-ending assignment. Lexical errors are believed to have a key effect over communication, “Phonological and lexical errors can interfere with basic meaning and hence need to be attended to on the spot if shared meaning is to result” (Gass & Selinker 2008, p. 341); they are deemed to significantly interfere with communication, “native speakers find lexical errors to be more disruptive than grammatical errors” Johansson (1978, as cited in Meara, 1984, p. 229).

The knowledge that lexis is regarded as an essential tool by both learners and speakers of any given language, as well as the understanding of the key role lexical transfers, and lexical errors, play in the transmission of messages have encouraged me to carry out this research. It inspires me to study the origins of the transfers, the reason why the learner needs to make use of his L1; how he does it; how he adjusts the lexical terms in an attempt to communicate; how, when he is unable to produce any kind of adaptation, he relies on his L1 in its purest form; and how all this mental effort is made as a result of one of the most basic needs as a social being, that of communication. I am interested in knowing which terms have a greater tendency to be transferred; what cognates are most frequently seen as useful; how the minds of learners associate polysemic words in their L1 to related terms in their L2 successfully or not; which terms can easily be understood by L2-Spanish speakers; which lexical transfers are more difficult to understand; which L1-English combinations of words have a greater hold on United States of America (USA) speakers. I want to know if the terrific effort learners make to communicate is positively influenced by their L1-lexical items.

With this aim in mind, I decided to analyze the oral speech as I believe it is in it, where a greater number of lexical transfers can be found, because as it is simultaneous to thought the speaker has little time to activate the *Monitor* (Krashen & Terrel, 1983) to modify his natural expression. This idea is further supported by Ringbom (1987, p.128), when he states that “limited control in speech situations, causes cross linguistic influence (CLI) to occur more often in speech than in writing”. I have also opted for this type of verbal expression because it is the primary form of communication and it is most needed and valued by L2-learners.

In addition, I believe that lexical transfer is a phenomenon that is the result of the great effort a learner makes to communicate and, all in all, it causes a favorable effect over his speech unless it definitely leads to misunderstanding or lack of communication. Lexical error does not worry me, what worries me is that communication takes place; and therefore, whenever the use of a certain lexical item favors communication, I believe the effect to be positive.

I have based my classification of lexical transfers in the academically accepted terminology of positive and negative lexical transfers, whose names depend on whether the lexical transfer has a facilitating effect and leads to successful term in L2 (positive), or on the contrary, leads to error (negative) in L2. It is curious but academics do mention the facilitating effect when

speaking of positive lexical transfer but do not use any type of wording, except that of *error*, when talking about negative lexical transfer. This fact has also encouraged me to initiate this adventure of discovering the effect it truly has.

There are few papers that analyze the oral speech of L2-Spanish learners, most concentrate on the written expression. The research papers that I have found that study lexical transfer, do so in the written form. I have found only one paper, a Master's thesis by PS Pires de Sá (2010), that studied the influence of transfer in the oral production of L1- Portuguese speakers-learners of L2-Spanish.

In addition, I have not found any paper that analyzes the positive lexical transfers, all those that study transfer concentrate on the negative lexical transfers. Ringbom (2007, p.10) states, "There is both positive and negative transfer, but only negative transfer is immediately visible to the researcher". And also, Ringbom (2007, p. 6) adds, "Transfer has mostly been discussed in connection with Error Analysis, where learner's L1-based deviations (especially syntactic ones) from the norm of the TL have been easy to spot, while the ways in which L1-knowledge has facilitated learning are much more difficult to notice". These two very similar considerations may be the reason why no positive lexical transfer papers can be found. I know the risk of identifying the positive lexical transfers, I also know my positive lexical transfer analysis may be regarded as subjective, but I still believe it is worth giving it a try and seeing which L1-English terms derive in correct expression in L2-Spanish.

I have based my research on the oral speech of 20 USA L1-English speakers-learners of L2-Spanish to identify the lexical transfers they make. I have further allowed L1-Spanish speakers to judge the level of comprehensibility of the negative lexical transfers used, in an attempt to determine whether such negative lexical transfers enable communication or whether, on the contrary, they interfere with meaning.

With this aim, my paper will be divided into five chapters. In the first chapter, I will present the theoretical grounds that support my research, which include the concept of transfer and more specifically lexical transfer, its types, and classification, together with a brief history of the positioning of academics regarding transfer, in addition to some works that analyze the beneficial effects of negative lexical transfer. In the second chapter, I present the methodology

which I have followed to complete my paper, offering the research questions, the aims of my research, in addition to explaining my research design, and giving a description of the tools that have been used to collect data, and of the participants that have taken part in my study. In the third chapter, I classify, analyze and explain both the positive and the negative lexical transfers that I have identified, and present an individual analysis of the results obtained from the Spanish speakers' comprehension check of the negative lexical transfers, to finalize with the joint results of all Spanish participants' (SPs) responses. In the fourth chapter, I offer the results of the two analysis presented in Chapter 3, explaining the most significant positive lexical transfers of each type, followed by those of the negative lexical transfers of each type, the general results of the lexical transfer analysis, and the results of the Spanish speakers' check regarding negative lexical transfers. In the fifth chapter of this paper, I discuss the results by dividing the chapter into four sections, the first of which offers the answers to the research questions, the second presents the final conclusions, the third relates the didactic implications of the findings of my research, and the fourth refers to the limitations of this research and proposes further research in this field of study.

Chapter Two

Theoretical background

This chapter offers a view of the theory that supports the current research. It starts with an insight into the concept of Applied Linguistics within which the theme of the research is included, goes on to getting a picture of how *communicative competence* affects communication and its strategies, analyzing the importance of lexical knowledge and how through it we speakers and learners express thought. The attempt to acquire this lexical knowledge leads learners to use their L1 and thus produce lexical transfers. The concept of lexical transfers will be looked into in depth, as this is precisely the linguistic phenomena that concerns the present analysis. As this research argues and tries to demonstrate that negative lexical transfer has a positive effect over communication, the following sections will present the only works that refer to this matter, those of M. Pilar Agustín Llach who is the only researcher who is beginning to question the negative effect of negative lexical transfer.

2.1 Applied linguistics

The term applied linguistics was first used when the language teaching community tried to apply a scientific approach to foreign language teaching. It was the work of Professors Charles Fries from the University of Michigan and Robert Lado from the University of Michigan (then Georgetown University) who contributed to defining the field, together with the publication of the journal: *Language Learning: A Quarterly Journal of Applied Linguistics* (Linguistic Society of America).

So, as we have seen, the term Applied Linguistics is closely related to language teaching. In the teaching community, the function of language which is of most interest is the use of language as a tool of communication between people, or what has been called its *social function*. However, when an individual speaks he does so in a certain way because he has a certain type of audience, therefore the characteristics of both the speaker and the listener must be taken into account when they engage in speech, from this perspective language is a *social event*. Language in this sense can only be described “if we know all about the people who

are involved, their personalities, their beliefs, attitudes, knowledge of the world, their relationship to each other, their social status, ... what has gone before, linguistically and non-linguistically.” (Corder 1973, p. 25). In addition, we can communicate with other individuals because we share a set of rules, or behaviors, that we follow by. This last approach to language has been called the *linguistic approach*, and according to Corder (1973) the name given to it may be misleading as it could give the impression that the other two are not seen as linguistic when they truly are. Nevertheless, the term *linguistic* in this approach is used in a special way, “to refer to the approach to language which has been that adopted by the study known as linguistics.” (Corder 1973, p. 26)

This approach envisions language as an independent study, whereas the other two approaches mentioned could fall respectively within general psychology and general sociology. The linguistic approach is concerned with language as a system, it studies the relation between meanings and sounds, and to explain their relationship it has set up several “levels of description” such as syntax and morphology, phonology and phonetics, and lexis and semantics. The linguistic approach is the most familiar and at the same time the theoretically most advanced and complex of the three as its data are recorded utterances and written texts rather than people and their behaviors. (Corder 1973).

The above mentioned utterances can be either spoken or written; with regards to the spoken utterances, which are those that concern this study, the applications can be various: to study phonetics, intonation and prosodic features; to study whether there is or not a special spoken grammar; to analyze the features of orality; to analyze the features of pragmatics and discoursal strategies; to study how languages vary depending on the situation; to carry out sociolinguistic research (Lang 2007); and in our case, to determine how effectively lexical error derived from L1 influence contributes to communication.

Language teaching involves the action of planning and designing teaching materials which resolve a number of problems of linguistic nature posed in the language-teaching process. The questions which arise in the planning and designing process, together with the analysis of the problems which are solved are part of applied linguistics. One of the first problems that has to be dealt with when posed with a teaching task is “what to teach?”. Corder (1973) describes this problem in linguistic terms as “sets of categories, rules, lists of lexical items,

lists of sounds, rhythmical sequences, intonation patterns; or in sociolinguistic terms as lists of speech acts or speech functions, or in psycholinguistic terms as sets of skill or language activities.” (Corder 1973, p. 140). A second problem is How to teach? What method/s should be used? Should teachers follow a specific textbook? What order should be given to the structures taught? What type of language should be taught? Should it be general and conversational language? Should it be focused on specific purposes? Corder (1973) suggests that “the teaching methods must influence the selection and organization of the “content” of the syllabus... decisions as to content will influence the methods of teaching” (Corder 1973, p. 141). What to teach may be dealt with by linguistic theory but how we teach, the materials that are used to teach, the order which is followed, and the content are all the responsibility of the applied linguists rather than of the theoretical linguists. In fact, Chomsky (1966) was skeptical about the significance that theoretical linguistics could have over the practical teaching of languages.

It is a general view that sees Applied Linguistics as a science that solves linguistic problems in the language-teaching community, the governing board of International Applied Linguistics Association describes applied linguistics “as a means to help solve specific problems in society...applied linguistics focuses on the numerous and complex areas in society in which language plays a role.” (AILA Vademecum 1992, p. 2); and the Linguistic Society of America states that Applied Linguistics “Apply the findings and the techniques from research in linguistics and related disciplines to solve practical problems.”

It is therefore, the task of teachers and educators to find the solutions to the linguistic problems posed in our classrooms and when doing so we are making use of the linguistic approach called Applied Linguistics.

2.2 Communicative Competence and Lexical Knowledge

Once the concept of Applied Linguistics has been seen, a brief consideration of the concepts of communicative competence and lexical knowledge will be offered as an introduction to lexical transfer.

2.2.1 Communicative Competence

The concept of communicative competence was coined by Dell Hymes in 1972 in response to Chomsky's notion of linguistic competence.

“...a normal child acquires knowledge of sentences not only as grammatical, but also as appropriate. He or she acquires competence as to when to speak, when not, and as to what to talk about with whom, when, where, in what manner. In short, a child becomes able to accomplish a repertoire of speech acts, to take part in speech events, and to evaluate their accomplishment by others.” (Hymes 1972, p. 277)

In 1980, Canale & Swain argued that communicative competence required some other sub-competences: *grammatical competence* (ability to use properly vocabulary, word meaning, sentence structure, punctuation, and spelling), *sociolinguistic competence* (ability to use the appropriate code of language use depending on register, politeness and style in a given context) *discourse competence* (ability to combine cohesive language structures into different genres), and *strategic competence* (ability to use verbal and non-verbal communication strategies) in order to maintain communication and enhance its effectiveness.

Other authors tried to improve these L1 models, and held that language knowledge is subdivided into organizational (grammatical and textual knowledge), pragmatic (lexical and functional knowledge) and sociolinguistic knowledge (appropriateness of language depending on social, cultural and situational factors). Metacognitive strategies are divided into *planning*, *assessment* and *goal-setting*.

Different authors hold that language may be used for a variety of purposes: Some say that it is used to convey a speaker's attitude toward his speech, or what has been called *expressive function*; others indicate that it is used to influence the behavior and/or beliefs of others, *regulatory function*; to open and maintain a channel of communication, *phatic function*. However, all scholars agree that “the primary function of language as used by adults is to represent objects or states of affairs external to both speaker and hearer, a purpose known to Bühler as the *representational function*, to Halliday as the *informative function* and to Jakobson as the *referential function*” (Young 1993, pp. 76-77).

This last function is what is more commonly called communicative competence, it is based on lexical competence (Meara, 1996) and thanks to lexical items, humans are able to

communicate and interact. Humans need to use lexical elements whose meanings are agreed upon yet, they also need to combine them by using the grammatical and syntactic structures that are common to each language. Nevertheless, without the lexical items none of the remaining linguistic structures would exist, language basically depends and exists because of lexical items.

When a speaker visits a foreign country, he manages to communicate not through his grammatical knowledge but through the few lexical items he may know. By using a very reduced number of words a foreign speaker is able to communicate. In our world, today, we are in constant contact with individuals of other countries, we travel to foreign countries for a few days, or we settle in foreign countries to work and live for short or lengthy periods of time. In these circumstances, we need to use language as a tool for making meaning and communicating, as Ringbom (2012, p. 495) states “Language should be seen not merely as an object of teaching as such, but also as a tool for meaning-making.”

This constant movement of people has resulted in multilingual speakers becoming more common, and no matter how proficient individuals are in that second or additional languages, these speakers are basically multilingual; “multilingualism has become a norm rather than an exception in the contemporary world and a large part of the population speaks several languages on a daily basis” (Agustín Llach 2016a, p. 3). It is this multilingualism together with the need of communicating in an L2 which appears to make “people more tolerant of ambiguity” (Dewaele 2013, p. 231). Multilingual individuals – “people with at least partial mastery in a number of languages” (Dewaele & Wei 2013, p. 231) – who are tolerant of ambiguity are more likely to perceive ambiguity positively (Budner 1962). This higher tolerance of “ambiguity” may endow speakers with a higher communicative capacity, granting them a skill that facilitates the understanding of others and meaning-making. This is one of the reasons why communicative competence may definitely be favored by L2 learners and multilingual speakers.

Lexical knowledge is at the core of L2 learning and in order to carry out a lexical research scholars need to focus on what vocabulary is, how it can be defined, how it can be learned, and know the processes that affect and characterize its acquisition. As this research paper deals with lexical items and the influence that those in one language have over the lexical

items a L2 learner chooses when speaking a foreign language, it is appropriate to begin by offering a definition of the concept of “word”.

The following section, will, therefore, look into what a word is, what knowing a word means, and why learners should learn lexical items.

2.2.2 Lexical knowledge

As an opening statement into the concept of lexical knowledge, it is interesting to note that the ability to learn words in L1 or L2 or any third language (L3) is a skill that is maintained throughout a learner’s lifespan (Gaskell & Ellis 2011). Yet, exactly in what part of our brain the new L1, L2 (and subsequent language) words are stored is still a mystery, as Sabourin (2014) states: “using electrophysiological techniques, however, we are not able to determine where the lexical items of each language are stored and whether this storage occurs in overlapping or separate (but possibly adjacent) regions of the brain” (Sabourin 2014, p. 5).

Nevertheless, no matter whether the lexical items are stored separately or jointly in the right or the left inferior frontal gyrus or sulcus, the fact is that for a non-neuro-scientist researching lexical knowledge, this information is secondary. What really matters is that words are learned and stored in our brain and are used to communicate thoughts, beliefs and information, and that lexical knowledge is considered by both learners and native speakers as the most complex area of linguistic knowledge.

2.2.2.1. What is a word? What does knowing a word mean?

A variety of studies on vocabulary acquisition have focused on what it is to know a word, this has been called depth of vocabulary knowledge (e.g. Nation 1990, 2001; Wesche and Paribakht 1996). However, in addition to trying to determine what it means to know a word, researchers have also focused on the number of words students know (Agustín Llach 2016b). Nevertheless, as this research is mainly interested in knowing what it means to know a word,

rather than acknowledging the number of words language students know, it will focus on the former issue.

“From an orthographic perspective, a word is a sequence of letters (and a limited number of other characteristics such as hyphen and apostrophe) bounded on either side by a space or punctuation mark” (Carter 1998). However, a number of questions arise from this simple definition. Are the different forms of a word, such as the forms of verbs in different tenses, *ride, rides, riding, rode, ridden* to be found in different entries in a dictionary, seen as different words? Are words that derive from a common root, *wide, width, widen*, separate words or should they be considered one word as a result of the fact that they share the same origin? Or as Carter (1998, p. 3) states: “what about words which have the same form but different meanings; for example, *line* in the sense of *railway line, fishing line* or *straight line*?” Carter concludes that an orthographic definition of a word is exclusively formalistic, which does not take meaning nor grammatical function into consideration and therefore, is insufficient. He believes it is more accurate to define a word as (Carter 1998, p. 3):

“the minimum meaningful unit of language. This allows us to differentiate the separate meanings contained in the word *fair* in so far as they can be said to be different semantic units. However, this definition presupposes clear relations between single words and the notion of “meaning”. For example, there are single units of meaning which are conveyed by more than one word: bus conductor, train driver, school teacher, model railway. And if they are compound words do they count as one word or two? There are also different boundaries of meaning generated by “words” which can be read in more than one way. For example, police investigation is read more normally as an investigation by the police but its appearance in a recent headline fronting a police bribery case enables us to read it as an investigation of the police. More problematically still, to what extent can “meaning” be said to be transmitted by the following words: *if, by, but, my, could, because, indeed, them*. Such items can serve to structure or otherwise organize how information is received, but on their own they are not semantic units in the sense intended above. The presence of such words in the lexicon also undermines another possible definition of a word, namely, that a word is a “minimal free form”.

Carter (1998) also sees a word as a linguistic element that only has one stressed syllable but then he finds a difference between *grammatical words* and *lexical words*. Grammatical words include pronouns, prepositions, auxiliary verbs and conjunctions; while nouns, adjectives, verbs and adverbs are what he calls lexical words. The latter have a greater information load

and are syntactically structured by grammatical words (Carter 1998). Grammatical words are finite in number while lexical words are infinite.

Learning words is a task that takes a lifetime because words are in constant change, new words are continually appearing; currently, the world of technology is contributing to a magnificent increase in the number of words in every language. When a new discipline arises, there is an array of new lexical items that must be learned if one is to communicate in that area of knowledge. This permanent change makes vocabulary learning a complex task and more so if the lexical items to be learned are those of a L2. The vocabulary system is in incessant movement, bringing in new words from other languages, creating and adapting words to new disciplines of knowledge, and losing words that are no longer in use. No speaker knows all the words in any language and no dictionary contains all the words that exist in a language. This simple explanation reveals the complex task of learning the vocabulary in a L2. Cassany (2002) supports this thought of lexical competence being in constant change.

Baralo (2005) believes lexical knowledge has been associated to the knowledge of the lexical items in a dictionary, as it is a descriptive relation of the words in a language. However, she holds that lexical knowledge is not exclusively the knowledge of the elements presented in a dictionary, it is also related to what she calls “*knowledge of the world*”, that is, the knowledge of when a word can be used, or should be used, when it is appropriate and when it is not.

Agustín Llach (2007) holds that lexical knowledge and discourse make an indissoluble partnership: “lexis is intrinsically related to discourse type since it establishes grammatical and lexico grammatical relations that help texts be coherent and cohesive” and she adds “discourse is linked to lexis through the selection of the appropriate vocabulary to deal with specific topics in specific genres” (Agustín Llach 2007, p. 86)

These considerations bring to mind the question of, when can it be said that an individual knows a word? What does knowing a word mean? We could say that a speaker knows a word when he understands several or all its possible meanings, and when he can make use of its multiple meanings in the appropriate contexts. This appreciation is in fact the knowledge a native speaker has of words. However, not even a native speaker knows all the possible

meanings and uses all the words in his L1. What about a L2 learner? When can we consider he knows a word? According to Faerch et al. (1984), Nation (1990, 2001), Richards (1976), Ringbom (1987) and others,

“knowing a word means having the ability to recognize and retrieve the word from memory, and it also means (1) knowing how the word is spelled and pronounced in its various forms, (2) the word’s meaning(s), its grammatical class and syntactic constraints, (4) its collocations and syntagmatic associations (i.e. the words that it tends to co-occur with), (5) its lexical and conceptual associations (i.e. the words and meanings it is associated with are not part of its collocational frame or denotational meaning), and (6) how frequently the word occurs in the language, how formal it is and in which registers of the language it can be used appropriately and conventionally” (Jarvis 2009, p. 100).

Agustín Llach (2007) believes that knowing a word involves knowing how to use it and “this goes in hand with knowing how to handle genre rhetorical conventions as well as knowing how to produce coherent and cohesive texts” (Agustín Llach 2007, p. 86-87). Whereas, Elgort (2011, p. 269) holds that “a vocabulary item is acquired if its representations are established and incorporated into the mental lexicon of the learner and if these representations can be accessed in an online (fluent) manner.” Therefore, according to these two definitions knowing a word involves not only knowing how to use a term, knowing the rhetorical conventions and how to produce cohesive texts, but also having these terms in the speakers’ mental lexicon and being able to retrieve them easily.

Verhallen and Schoonen (1993) consider that lexical knowledge is basic as regards communication, and Agustín Llach (2005) goes beyond the use of it in communication and adds that “vocabulary is considered to be a central part of language learning and also an essential component in communication.” (Agustín Llach 2005, p. 12).

Other authors such as Meara (2005) in (Crossley et al. 2011) holds that lexical proficiency comprises breadth and depth of knowledge features, as well as access to core lexical items.

For a L2 learner to learn a word he must, first of all, understand it. Ringbom (2007) says that understanding is based on three types of information: *input* (linguistic and communicative), *knowledge* (linguistic knowledge and knowledge of the world) and *context* (linguistic context and situational context). A key concept regarding understanding is that of inference. When a

reader comes across a lexical item that he is not familiar with, he can make use of a variety of strategies so as to reach some sort of conclusion regarding the meaning of such term. These strategies may be inter-linguistic, intra-linguistic and contextual, or extra-linguistic (Carton, 1971; Schoutenvan Parreren and Van Parreren, 1979; Takala, 1984; Haastrup, 1985). The learner analyses the context in which the term has been found and puts his semantic, syntactic, pragmatic and his knowledge of the world to work in an attempt to conclude on the meaning of that term. Takala (1984) proposes that the factors of length, structure (if the word contains familiar elements), the type of word, the level of abstraction and accurateness of the word are elements that provide the reader with clues that aid him in his attempt to infer its meaning. Ringbom (2007) believes that, in addition to this inference strategy there are other inherent factors that complicate or simplify such inference. Up-down contextual mechanisms interact with the down-up, based on the form of the new words. The learner may, after a careful analysis of the possible meaning of a word, reach an erroneous hypothesis, however, the context may give him clues as to what the real meaning of such a word is.

In adult L1 and proficient learners understanding processes, the integration of up-down and down-up understanding procedures is an effective tool, while early learners rely too much on up-down or down-up procedures but do not integrate them, and therefore hinder understanding (Haastrup, 1991; Vaurio, 1998). As for L2 understanding, a learner must base his decision on context, on other extra-linguistic elements, and on the up-down knowledge to compensate his lexical recognition deficiencies.

Therefore, for a learner to learn new words he must first understand them, which in many cases, involves associating the word to an L1 term. This is so if the words are formally similar and this procedure is simpler than that of associating the new word with a concept. Only a small portion of what is understood is truly learned, however, in early stages of learning this association leads to receptive learning, which involves memory and its capacity to enable a learner to activate an equivalent L1 term given a L2 stimulus.

Even when a learner has never heard or seen a word he may understand it if he is able to successfully infer its meaning. He may do this either because the word is within his *potential vocabulary* (Denninghaus, 1976; Takala, 1984) or through the context in which he finds the

term. The *potential vocabulary* of a speaker “is based on the learner’s ability to analyze his real vocabulary and make creative use of the different elements (morphemes), as well as on his ability to recognize relationships between the target language and some other languages he knows.” (Ringbom 1987, p. 42)

To be able to positively state that a learner knows a word, he must understand it and use it properly. Cassany (2002) refers to lexical proficiency as the appropriate use of both *active vocabulary* and *passive vocabulary*. *Active vocabulary*, that which can be produced at will, and *passive vocabulary*, that which can be recognized. Faerch, Haastrup and Phillipson (1984, p. 100) believe that “The difference between comprehension and production is that comprehension consists in providing a word with a meaningful meaning, whereas production involves the skill to automatically activate a word.”

Concerning lexical knowledge Gass (1993) proposes that the first distinction to be made about the lexicon is one between *potential and real vocabulary*. “Potential vocabulary consists of words a learner will recognize even though they have yet to be seen in the second language.” An example would be common scientific and technological terms. And *real vocabulary* “refers to those words a learner is able to not only recognize but also to understand and use properly.” (Gass & Selinker 1993, p. 272).

However, even when a speaker is able to understand and use words properly at some point of his life, if he stops using his mother tongue (L1) for any given reason, he may lose parts of its vocabulary. This is what is called “language attrition”, which as Schmid & Jarvis (2014) mention is more common in lexical-semantic knowledge than in any other linguistic field: “It has become almost axiomatic in language attrition research to assume that lexical-semantic knowledge is the most vulnerable part of the linguistic repertoire, deteriorating first, fastest and most dramatically as compared to, for example, grammar or phonetics” (Schmid & Jarvis 2014, p.729).

However, as discussed in Teichroew (1982), the picture is not so simple because we cannot define the concept of lexical knowledge through this dichotomy of understanding and using words properly, especially when at specific situations such knowledge may be lost. She, however, proposed that vocabulary knowledge is in fact a continuum between recognition

and production. In her view, “Production should not be viewed in a monolithic fashion, for productive knowledge includes both producing range of meanings as well as appropriate collocations (i.e., what words go together)” (Gass & Selinker 1993, p. 272).

There is yet another different distinction, that drawn by Bialystok and Sharwood Smith (1985, p. 104), namely *knowledge* and *control*. “Knowledge is defined as “the way in which the language system is represented in the mind of the learner (the categories and relationships in long-term memory),” whereas control is “the processing system for controlling that system during actual performance”.

Lexical learning, according to Hatch and Brown (1995, p. 372) who based their model on Brown and Payne (1994), consists of five stages:

1. Coming across a new word;
2. understanding the lexical form;
3. understanding the meaning of the word;
4. consolidating the form with the meaning of the word in the learner’s memory, and;
5. using the word.

The first three stages are related to the understanding phase of the process of learning a word; while the two last stages have to do with production. The first three coincide with what Corder (1967) called linguistic *input* and the two last with *intake*.

As for Ringbom (1987) the difference between comprehension and production is that comprehension refers to the learner’s ability to process incoming data, whereas production involves activating knowledge.

Consequently, in the comprehension and production lexical processes there are two significant aspects: the acoustic or visual recognition of a word (recognition) and the mental process through which the meaning of that word is activated (lexical access). These two processes suggest that there is a mental lexicon in the learner’s mind, which is activated whenever a speaker/learner needs to express a thought and that relates all the information the speaker/learner has of a single word to its form, meaning, context, appropriateness of use... (Nation, 2001; Baralo, 2005).

Other linguists include the concept of frequency in the use of lexical items, the formal use of the lexical terms and the appreciation of the register of a word in their definition of lexical knowledge. Richards (1976) believes that knowing a word involves knowing how frequently that word is used, knowing if it is used formally or colloquially, and knowing the linguistic registers in which that word may be used properly and conventionally. Others include the idea of concepts, Jarvis (2007) adds the idea of the mental concepts with which a word is associated. Conceptual knowledge together with semantic knowledge are what allow an individual to determine what a word means and at the same time, know when he can make use of that word, identify the context in which it can be used and perceive the pragmatic connotations of such word.

Baralo (2005) also refers to the component of concept when she reflects about lexical knowledge. She believes, as does Meara (1988), that the lexical learning process does not differ in L1 and L2. She believes that lexical learning involves the association between a word and a meaning. Therefore, a learner must perform two different processes when learning a lexical term: learn its acoustic structure, which allows the recognition of a word as well as its pronunciation (formal process); and on the other hand, take in the concept it expresses and assign it a semantic category (semantic process).

In this respect, and regarding conceptual knowledge, Jarvis and Pavlenko (2008) believe that there is currently consensus with respect to the representation of lexis in three levels:

- The first level is that of lexemes, the form of a word, the knowledge of how it written, pronounced and of its different forms;
- the second level is that of the lemma, which allows the recognition of different forms of the same word (the same lemma). It is also the level of the information about the grammatical class, subcategorization, and other syntagmatic limitations (collocation, syntaxes) and;
- the third level is the level of concepts, where the visual, audio, smell, tactile, kinesthesia, and other imprints such as images and schemes are imprinted and organized in conceptual categories (Malt 1993; Keil 1989,1994; Murphy 2002).

These conceptual categories integrate with the knowledge of the world any individual has. Some of the mental concepts we have are related with language, however a large number of them may associate with words and other linguistic structures (Levinson, 1997). Concepts that associate with words can join multiple lemmas (*buy and purchase*) and lemmas can associate to multiple concepts (*chair* can be associated to a type of furniture and to the concept of a professional position in a company).

According to Richards (1976), Faerch *et al.* (1984), Ringbom (1987), Nation (1990, 2001), and others, knowing a word involves the ability to recognize the word and access that word in a person's memory; and it also means knowing how to write the word, and knowing how to pronounce it in its many different forms, knowing the meaning/s of the word, its grammatical and syntactic limitations, its collocations and syntagmatic associations, its lexical and conceptual associations and the frequency with which it is used.

According to Richards (1976) knowing a word involves:

- A native speaker keeps enlarging his vocabulary well into his adult life, whereas syntactic development does not develop as much;
- knowledge of the probability of a certain word appearing in speech and writing;
- knowledge of the limitations of use of a word;
- knowledge of the syntactic behavior of a word;
- knowledge of the roots, derivations and compound words in which a certain word may appear;
- knowledge of the position it holds within the association network;
- knowledge of its semantic function;
- knowledge of its polysemy.

Cassany (2002) includes sociolinguistic and pragmatic knowledge as additional components of lexical knowledge:

- Pronunciation and spelling
- Morphology
- Syntaxes

- Semantics
- Pragmatics
- Sociolinguistics

Ringbom (1987) proposes six basic components of lexical knowledge:

- Accessibility: The speaker is able to access the word in his mental lexicon;
- Morphophonology: The speaker knows a word in all its forms, and also its possible derivations;
- Syntax: the speaker knows the syntactic constraints of a word;
- Semantic: the speaker knows the meanings of a word;
- Collocations: the speaker knows the collocational constraints of a word;
- Associations: the speaker knows the associative constraints of a word.

Meara (1996) believes that there are two features that define the linguistic competence of a learner:

1. The size of his lexical knowledge. Learners with an ample lexical knowledge are more competent than those whose lexical knowledge is reduced.
2. The organization of his lexical knowledge.

Wesche and Paribakht (1997) describe five stages that reveal the feelings learners have regarding lexical knowledge. The stages are defined by five feelings that describe the learners' appreciation of their lexical knowledge:

1. Remembering seeing a word;
2. Remember seeing the word but not knowing its meaning;
3. Remember seeing the word and think they know the meaning;
4. Knowing the word and its meaning;
5. Being able to use the word in a sentence.

2.2.2.2 Why should learners learn words?

There are many good reasons for focusing on vocabulary acquisition. The first, is that learners have long recognized vocabulary as a most important tool in language learning, in fact, they may consider it to be the most important component for them; (Gass & Selinker 1993), the second, is that vocabulary development is now recognized by researchers as a major aspect of learning a new language. Applied linguists, particularly Second Language Acquisition (SLA) researches, have traditionally been more concerned with other parts of language than with lexis but some reviews of the lexicon (e.g. Gass 1988b; Meara 1984) pointed out that the lexicon has been neglected in L2 acquisition research. Yet, in the last years, researchers have increasingly paid attention to vocabulary learning, because vocabulary knowledge is the basis of language learning “The task the L1 learner faces is mainly one of learning the lexicon (lexical and functional itmes), which then triggers the setting of universal grammatical parameters” (The M4 Applied Linguistics Network 2008, p. 270).

On the other hand, lexical knowledge appears to be not only the most important tool for both learners and speakers, but also the most delicate and vulnerable element of speech, that which is most easily forgotten, or even lost, if not used. (Schmid & Jarvis 2014).

In addition, “learners regard lexical errors as the most serious” (Politzer 1978, as cited in Levenston 1979, p. 147). And native speakers find lexical errors to be more disruptive than grammatical errors (Meara 1984, p.229 [citing Johansson 1979]). Gass (1988b) seconded this argument and noted that grammatical errors generally result in structures that are understood, whereas lexical errors may interfere with communication. Ellis (1995) also supports this belief as he regards lexical errors as a common cause of L2 miscommunication. Additionally, large corpora of errors consistently indicate that lexical errors are the most common among L2 learners.

This research agrees with Gass’s belief that lexical errors may interfere with communication. His using the term “may” is most appropriate, as the present research attempts to prove this to be so, that a great number of lexical errors do not interfere with communication, on the contrary, they contribute to it, as the learner makes such mistakes in an attempt to

communicate and, in a larger number of lexical mistakes, achieves to communicate his thoughts. A L2 learner needs to choose the appropriate term and use it in the right context. It is a complex task that needs to be automatized, and while it is, it inevitably leads to error. Lexical knowledge is what allows L2 speakers to communicate, and according to Agustín Llach (2007) it is together with discourse competence part of communicative competence. “They both describe the ability to use language that conforms to the norms of different contexts and genres” (Agustín Llach 2007, p. 86).

According to Ellis (1999, p.33) “vocabulary learning is gradual, especially where ‘depth’ of knowledge is involved, but exposure to an unknown word on just a few occasions is sufficient for some measurable learning to occur.”

This study regards vocabulary learning as a task that involves more than just being exposed to a certain word a few times. Learning a word means being exposed to it as well as using it mistakenly first, and then properly a certain number of times, and later remembering to use it whenever the speech gives the speaker a chance to.

Ellis also holds (1999, p. 58) that “most L2 vocabulary is learnt incidentally, through oral input, and this is so mainly at beginning stages of learning as it appears to provide more contextual support than written input.” However, written input provides visual support as well as contextual support and this contributes greatly to recording a certain word in our brain and thus learning it. Additionally, learning words does not appear to occur exclusively at lower levels of proficiency but is also linked to exposure, as (Terrazas & Agustín Llach 2009, p. 114) mention “The vocabulary size of foreign language learners also depends on their L2 proficiency level and as students’ experience with the target language increases, vocabulary size increases as well.” Nevertheless, according to Terrazas & Agustín Llach (2009) it appears that foreign language learners do not accumulate the number of lexical knowledge that native speakers do, as native speakers tend to learn new terms well into their adult life, which gives them a good advantage over L2 learners.

When a L2 learner learns lexical items, he tends to simplify, that is, to make do with fewer words than he would in his L1. This process of simplification and its result can be observed and studied in a number of different linguistic contexts: 1. In the speech and writing of L2 learners; 2. In the speech of children acquiring their L1; 3. In the speech of adult L1 speakers

talking to children or learners of the language; 4. In simplified readings; 5. In pidgins speeches; and 6. In translations. (Blum-Kulka & Levenston 1983)

Blum-Kulka & Levenston (1983, p. 120) consider that “for the learner it is the difficulty, or impossibility, of both internalizing the exact nature of the interrelationships...that lead to the continual use of simplification as a communicative strategy.”

When talking about words there are certain terms that must be introduced, those of lexeme, lemmas, and morphemes.

There is a strong relationship between words and lexemes. According to *Merriam Webster Dictionary*, a lexeme is: “a meaningful linguistic unit that is an item in the vocabulary of a language”. Carter (1998) suggests a lexeme is the basic unit which is the root of a number of lexical elements that derive from it, i.e. BRING is the lexeme which underlies a variety of grammatical structures: “bring”, “brought”, “brings”, “bringing”.

It is, at this point, also appropriate to introduce the concept of lemma. Jarvis (2009, p. 101) states that Levelt et al. (1989) used the term lemma to refer to both syntactic and semantic properties of a word. And adds: “Roelofs (1992) and Levelt et al. (1989) later associated the term “lemma” more specifically with the syntactic specifications of a word, while introducing the term “lexical concept” to refer to a word’s semantic properties.” He himself, uses the term “lemma” to refer to semantic and syntactic properties.

As for the concept of morpheme, Carter (1998) holds that it is the smallest unit of meaning in a word. Each morpheme has complete meaning and by adding or eliminating it from a specific lexical root the speaker can change the meaning of such a word. For example, the “s” in “eats” is a morpheme which changes the original morpheme “eat” into the third person singular of the present simple of the verb, however, the morpheme “s” can also indicate that a noun is plural.

2.2.3 Components of lexical knowledge

The Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR) in its fifth chapter describes the user/learner's competences which include linguistic, sociolinguistic and pragmatic competences. Among the linguistic competences, it distinguishes: lexical, grammatical, semantic, phonological, orthographic and orthoepic competences. Lexical competence is defined as: knowledge of, and ability to use, the vocabulary of a language, consists of lexical elements and grammatical elements.

Lexical elements include:

- a) Fixed expressions, consisting of several words, which are used and learnt as wholes.

Fixed expressions include:

- sentential formulae, including:
direct exponents of language functions such as greeting, e.g. *How do you do?*
proverbs, etc...
relict archaisms
- *phrasal idioms*, often:
semantically opaque, frozen metaphors, e.g.: *He kicked the bucket* (i.e. he died).
intensifiers. Their use is often contextually a stylistically restricted, e.g. *as white as snow* (=pure)
- *fixed frames*, learnt and used as unanalyzed wholes, into which words or phrases are inserted to form meaningful sentences, e.g.: "*Please may I have...* "
- other fixed phrases, such as:
phrasal verbs, e.g. *to put up with...*;
compound prepositions, e.g. *in front of*.
- fixed collocations, consisting of words regularly used together, e.g. *to make a speech/mistake*.

- b) *Single word forms*. A particular single word form may have several distinct meanings (polysemy), e.g. *tank*, a liquid container or an armored armed vehicle. Single word forms include members of the open word classes: noun, verb, adjective, adverb, though these may include closed lexical sets (e.g. days of the week, months of the

year, weights and measures, etc.). Other lexical sets may also be established for grammatical and semantic purposes.

Lexical semantics deals with questions of word meaning, e.g.:

- relation of word to general context:
 - reference;
 - connotation;
 - exponence of general specific notions;
- interlexical relations, such as:
 - synonymy/antonymy;
 - hyponymy;
 - collocation;
 - part-whole relations;
 - componential analysis;
 - translation equivalence.

2.3 Definition of linguistic transfer

2.3.1. Linguistic transfer

One of the first scholars to have used the term transfer was Whitney. According to Odlin (1989, p. 26) “Whitney (1881) used the term transfer to refer to cross-linguistic influences – long before any linguists thought of linking it to the notion of habit formation.” Nevertheless, as we can see below transfer is a concept that has been used by innumerable researchers along the last century and is still in-vogue today.

Language transfer has been attributed to L2 learning as it is in this field that transfer occurs. Ausubel (1968, p.iv) stated: “If I had to reduce all of education psychology to one principle, I would say that the most important factor influencing learning is what the learner already knows.” Neumer (1992) also believed that learners associate new structures and linguistic items to those already stored in their mind. Lado (1957, in Krashen, 1988) similarly affirmed

that the speaker's L1 had an influence over his L2 expression, and that it was the L1 which was the source of errors. Ainciburu (2008) likewise refers to transfer as a phenomenon that occurs when a L2 learner makes use of his prior linguistic and communicative knowledge both to speak and to understand. Gass & Selinker (1993) regard language transfer as a relevant characteristic of language learning and consider it a subfield of SLA, as well as a psychological process that occurs when prior learning is passed on to a new learning situation. Kellerman & Sharwood (1986) agree with the idea that there is an influence of one language over another: "We would like to use the word "transfer" restricted to those processes that lead to the *incorporation* of elements from one language into another" (Kellerman & Sharwood 1986, p. 1). As do Jarvis & Pavlenko (2008) who consider transfer a process through which speakers use mental representations of one linguistic system, say L1, and transfer them over to another linguistic system, such as L2. Corder (1983) also talked about transferring mental representations or, as he called them, "structures". As Kurt Kohn (1986, in Kellerman & Sharwood 1986, p. 21) remarks: "The still obvious fact is that the learner's L1 does indeed leave its traces in his interlanguage". Thus, the term "interlanguage" is used to refer to the language used by the learner, which differs from the language used by native speakers and is characteristic of each learner of an L2, and it is this interlanguage which is the factual proof of transfer as it offers examples of it. He added: "Today there is no doubt that, despite its sometimes irritatingly elusive character, transfer is one of the major factors shaping the learner's interlanguage competence and performance" (Kurt Kohn 1986, in Kellerman & Sharwood, p. 21).

Some researchers believe that the influence the L1 has over the L2 is one of constant confrontation; language transfer is the result of a battle that is held in the mind of the learner when he is trying to express his thoughts in a L2.

"Taking a psychological point of view, we can say that there is never peaceful co-existence between two language systems in the learner, but rather constant warfare, and that warfare is not limited to the moment of cognition, but continues during the period of storing newly learnt ideas in memory" (Marton 1981, in Ellis 1985 p.150)

Transferring makes the task of learning and speaking a foreign language easier, it is one of the main facilitating strategies in language learning. Not surprisingly, Odlin (1989) regards

L1 as an extremely important tool that contributes to the learner's expressing his thoughts more easily, he holds that the effect that transfer has over the learner is that of facilitating speech. Ringbom not only supports this belief but considers that most scholars agree on this facilitating effect the learner's prior knowledge has when learning an L2. He affirms:

“There are few aspects of foreign language learning on which general agreement can be found among scholars working in the field. Perhaps two of the least controversial principles are that the learner tries to facilitate his learning task wherever possible, and that he tries to make use of whatever relevant prior knowledge he has for this task”. (Ringbom 1986, p. 150)

He adds that this facilitating effect is notable as the learner has already acquired a language system through his L1, which by the time he learns an L2 has become automatized and is used as the basis to acquire this L2. He suggests that this technique applies to language learning in general since they also apply to L1 acquisition (Ringbom, 1986)

There are many reasons why a learner makes use of his L1 to communicate ideas in L2. Krashen (1983) considered that transfer was caused by the lack of linguistic knowledge a L2 learner has of the language he is learning, and that it very probably occurred because the learner was making an attempt to speak before he was linguistically ready. However, my research proves that L2 learners at a B2 level, a high intermediate level, transfer despite the fact that they are more than linguistically ready to speak. Ringbom also supports this idea of less L2 knowledge bringing on more transfer when he says: “It is obvious that the less the learner knows about the target language (L2), the more he is forced to draw upon any other prior knowledge he possesses” (Ringbom 1986, p. 155). This appears to be a sound statement, it is not that speakers with a low level of L2 knowledge transfer and those with a higher linguistic knowledge do not, the fact is that learners transfer no matter what the L2 level is, though those with lower levels may transfer more than those with a greater L2 linguistic knowledge.

Jarvis & Pavlenko (2008) consider that transfer occurs not only as a result of the speakers' attempt to communicate but it is also the result of a learning strategy by which the learner formulates hypothesis regarding the forms, structures, functions, rules of a L2 basing them on his knowledge of another language.

Ringbom (1987) refers to what Faerch & Kasper identified as causing transfer, “The L2-learner is constantly seeking to facilitate his task by making use of previous knowledge. His previous linguistic knowledge consists of what he already knows about the target language and of his knowledge of L1 and possible other languages” (in Ringbom 1987, p. 33 referring to Faerch & Kasper 1980, p. 70). These researchers include “other languages”, not only L1, as the source of transfer. Odlin (1989) believes that the influence takes place between two or more languages. He defines language mixing as: “The merging of characteristics of two or more languages in any verbal communication. If mixing does occur, native language influence is only one of the possible forms it can take” (Odlin 1989, p. 6). In addition, he holds that the influence goes in different directions, not only from L1 to L2, but even from L2 to L1, and from and to any other languages the speaker may speak. So, it appears to be that transfer occurs from the language the speaker/learner knows best into the language the speaker/learner has less knowledge of, and also, the other way around. However, Ringbom (1987) as well as Ellis (1985) believe that it is languages that are similar that can cause this influence and not the languages that are significantly different. The latter, in fact, held that differences caused interference while similarities facilitated L2 learning.

The influence can occur not only between L1 and L2 but between two or more languages. Odlin (1989) defines language mixing as: “The merging of characteristics of two or more languages in any verbal communication” (Odlin 1989, p. 6). In addition, he holds that the influence goes in different directions, from L1 to L2, from L2 to L1, and from and to any other languages the speaker may speak “...and still another kind of cod-switching, in which there is a systematic interchange of words, phrases, and sentences of two or more languages” (Odlin 1989, p.7).

It appears that transfer occurs more frequently in speech than in writing. In fact, Ringbom (1987) remarks: “Limited control in speech situations causes CLI (Cross Linguistic Influence) to occur more often in speech than in writing” (Ringbom 1987, p. 128). Krashen’s Monitor theory does coincide with this criterion, as he believes that, in speech, the learner is unable to activate the Monitor whereas in writing the learner has more time to think and therefore to reconsider the structure he has used to transmit his message. Krashen (1988) introduced the notion of the Monitor theory to explain to what extent a learner can

consciously correct his errors by using thought. This theory hypothesizes that individuals, when learning languages, mentally make use of two different systems, that which he called *the conscious*, and *the subconscious*. He believed the *subconscious* to be more important than the *conscious*. His Monitor Theory maintained that “conscious learning is available to the performer only as a Monitor” (Krashen 1988, p. 2). He identified several conditions on the use of the Monitor, and saw that it would be used whenever the speaker has enough time to consider his formal expression, has interest in expressing his thoughts properly, and, in addition, knows the linguistic rules he needs to use to express his thoughts.

In spite of all the above, most scholars defend the importance of the learner’s L1 when speaking/learning an L2, yet according to Odlin, there seems to be little consensus. Odlin (1989) holds that although there are some scholars who have supported the importance of transfer, others have shown great skepticism regarding its importance. Jarvis (2009) agrees in this respect with Odlin as he believes scholars confer a variety of meaning to the idea of transfer and sees that this diversity of criteria is the cause of the confusion that exists regarding the influence L1 may have over L2. His aim is to join criteria and propose a uniting definition. However, up to date it has not been achieved. This belief contrasts with the readings made for this research, most of the scholars seen along this study do regard transfer as a significant characteristic of L2 learning.

2.3.2 Interference

The term “interference” causes a negative first impression as the word itself carries the meaning of something getting in the way, or as Merriam Webster defines it: “To interpose in a way that hinders or impedes: come into collision or be in opposition”. Clearly the word makes users associate it to what scholars have called “negative transfer”. This interpretation is also viewed by Jarvis & Pavlenko (2008) who regard it as suggesting negative results. They mention that the term was first used by Weinreich (1953), and believe it carries behaviorist connotations that leads us to consider mainly the negative outcomes of transfer.

However, scholars do not agree on whether these two terms “interference” and “transfer” are in fact two different words used to refer to the same phenomenon or they have a different meaning. Some scholars believe there is a difference between the concept of “transfer” and “interference”, yet many others regard them as identical. The term was originally used by behaviorism, and according to Odlin (1989):

“A discussion of contrastive analysis and behaviorism by Carrol (1968) makes clear that the behaviorist notion of transfer is quite different from the notion of native language influence. For one thing, the behaviorist notion of transfer often implies the extension of earlier habits, whereas the acquisition of a second language need not lead to any replacement of the learner’s primary language.” (Odlin 1989, p. 25)

One of the scholars who has seen a difference between the two terms is Corder (1983) who states: “The product of a strategy of learning which utilizes the L1 system as a heuristic technique is called “interference” and the strategy of learning which produces it is the strategy of “transfer”” (Corder 1983, p. 16). He therefore holds that “interference” is the result of a learning strategy, while “transfer” is the strategy itself.

However, most scholars consider that both terms refer to the same action. As we can see below Newmark (1966) defends the idea that “interference” does not have a negative effect over speech but is simply making use of old knowledge, which is what “transfer” is. He states: “‘Interference’ is not the first language “getting in the way” of L2 skills. Rather, it is the result of the performer “falling back” on old knowledge when he or she has not yet acquired enough of the second language” (Newmark 1966, in Krashen 1988 p.7). Krashen (1988) adds “interference is the result of the use of the L1 as an utterance initiator” Krashen (1988, p. 7). This definition does not differ at all with that of “transfer”.

On the other hand, Baralo (1996) and Odlin (1989) also seem to interpret the term “interference” as something negative. Baralo (1996) proposed that interference, or what she called “intense interferences”, are frequently found in the most peripheral aspects of the linguistic system, that which she referred to as “motor-perceptual system”¹, and identified phonetic oppositions as such. Odlin (1989) has a similar view to that of Baralo as he identifies

¹ Translated by author

phonetic inaccuracies as an example of interference. In fact, Odlin uses both terms, “transfer” and “interference”, in his definition of transfer and suggests that the term interference has truly a negative effect. He states “Transfer is not simply interference” and goes on, “with or without any behaviorist connotations, the notion of interference does seem applicable in the description of some aspects of L2 performance, such as phonetic inaccuracies.” (Odlin 1989, p. 26).

Lastly, Ellis (1985) agrees with Odlin and Baralo with respect to the phonetic influence the L1 has over the learner’s L2 yet, he does not use the term “interference” to refer to it. He believes that foreign accents when speaking an L2 are the clearest evidence of this influence “It is a popular belief that SLA is strongly influenced by the learner’s L1 - The clearest support for this belief comes from ‘foreign’ accents in the second language speech of learners” (Ellis 1985, p. 19).

As can be seen there is no clear consensus as to whether “interference” and “transfer” define the same linguistic strategy or not.

2.3.3 Cross-linguistic influence

There is yet another term that has been used to refer to the same strategy, this is Cross-linguistic influence. As can be seen in the following definition the concept coincides with that of transfer, ““Cross-linguistic influence” as: the influence of a person’s knowledge of one language on that person’s knowledge or use of another language...” (Jarvis & Pavlenko 2008, p. 1)

Scholars such as Corder (1983) and Kellerman and Sharwood Smith (1986) consider that the terms “transfer”, “interference” and “cross-linguistic influence” should be used with great care. In fact, Odlin (1989) cautions about their use:

“The terminology used to study languages reflects vexing problems, and in terminology of second language research, the term transfer is as problematic as any. The issue of cross-linguistic influence is controversial with or without the term, but the long-standing use of transfer has itself led to differences of opinion. Some scholars have advocated abandoning the term or

using it only in highly restricted ways, yet many others continue to use it without restriction”
(Odlin 1989, p. 25)

However, in later publications Odlin (2005, p. 4) refers to the concept of cross-linguistic influence as being “an important topic not only for SLA research but also for studies of language contact”.

Consequently, the terms: *transfer*, *interference* and *cross-linguistic influence* are the three terms that have been used to refer to this speaking strategy. Jarvis & Pavlenko (2008), however seem to disregard the term “interference” and see “transfer’ and “cross-linguistic influence” as the most conventional terms to refer to this phenomenon.

2.3.4 Linguistic proximity determines the likeliness of transfer

The phenomenon of transfer and its likeliness to occur in a L2 learner’s speech is also linked to the proximity between the L1 and L2 of the learner, among other factors. The closer the two languages are, the more influence L1 will have over L2, and the more distant, the less influence L1 will have over L2. It seems that all scholars agree on this point and so several statements made by different scholars with regards to this consideration will be offered below.

Weinreich (1953) supports this idea when he states “The greater the difference between two systems, i.e. the more numerous the mutually exclusive forms and patterns in each, the greater is the learning problem and the potential area of interference” (Weinreich 1953, p. 1).

Corder also supported this thought “The more similar the mother tongue and the target language, the greater help the mother tongue can give in acquiring the second language. The less similar, the less help it can give” (Corder 1983, p. 88).

Agustín Llach (2016b) agrees with this belief as she holds that “The linguistic distance between the source and the target language definitely plays a role in lexical learning. In this sense, the L1 might have a facilitating effect if the two languages share similar or identical words.” (Agustín Llach 2016b, p. 216)

Kellerman (1986) also saw this influential factor as significant with regards to the likelihood of transfer, he considered that proximity would increase the number of cases of transfer while distance would reduce them.

Scholars such as Odlin and Jarvis (2004) present several factors that determine the difficulty in learning an L2, among such factors they include language proximity yet also refer to others such as: source language proficiency, target language proficiency, order of acquisition of languages, activation of source languages, formality of context and constraints on verbal memory.

Kellerman (1978) had previously concluded from his studies that transfer was a strategy that compensated for the lack of L2 knowledge and he believed idioms, lexis and syntax were constrained by the perception the learner had of the distance that existed between L1 and L2, yet phonology was the only area of language that was not constrained.

Other scholars perceive the same influence of language proximity when speaking about transfer and Ringbom (1986) believes that this influence is most notable in the initial stages of learning

“How relevant a learner’s prior linguistic knowledge is to the learning of another language is largely determined by the perceived distance between the L1 and the L2. The smaller the distance, the more relevant this prior knowledge is to the learner, especially in the initial stages of learning”
(Ringbom 1986, p. 88)

Yet others such as Mackey (1965) and Ringbom (1987) see the influence being greater in understanding than in production. Mackey believes that the facilitating effect of language similarities exists when the learner is trying to understand yet, when expressing his ideas verbally, he regards the effect to be the opposite, the similarity between languages causes interference instead.

“If (a learner) ... is learning simply to understand the language, the greater the similarity between the first language and the second, the easier the latter will be to understand. In using the language, however, it is the similarity that may cause interference by the misuse of such things as deceptive cognates” (Mackey 1965, p. 109).

“...intra-lingual similarity of new items to items already familiar to the learner aid the learner in understanding these new items, but in producing them the formal semantic similarity may affect the learner’s selection procedures in a negative way so that an erroneous form is selected” (Ringbom 1987, p. 60)

However, regarding the facilitating effect that proximity between languages causes over the learning of an L2 there is not complete agreement either, Winitz & Reeds (1985) differ from this theory as they believe that the more distant two languages are in structure, the easier it is to acquire the L2.

Odlin (1989) supports this statement:

“Nevertheless, much of the influence of the native language can be very helpful, especially when the differences between two languages are relatively few. For example, the number of Spanish-English cognates is far greater than the number of Arabic-English vocabulary” (Odlin 1989, p. 26).

Lado (1957) in his influential book *Linguistics Across Cultures* holds that L2 learners do not only transfer forms and meanings but also their culture when speaking an L2, both productively and receptively

“Individuals tend to transfer the forms and meanings, and the distribution of forms and meanings of their native language and culture to the foreign language and culture – both productively when attempting to speak the language and to act in the culture, and receptively when attempting to grasp and understand the language and the culture as practiced by natives” (Lado 1957, p.2 in Gass & Selinker 1993, p. 53)

Larsen-Freeman & Long (1991) profoundly agree with Lado when they state: “Anyone who has attempted to learn a foreign language will be able to corroborate Lado’s claim. Foreign language learners are all too familiar with the interfering effects of their native language causing everything from accented speech to inappropriate non-verbal behavior” (Larsen-Freeman & Long 1991, p. 53).

Transfer appears to be more frequent in learners’ oral expression than in writing. According to Krashen, the main reason is that speakers do not have time when maintaining a conversation in a L2 to understand the message given to them, to think about what they are

going to say in response, and to think of how they are going to say it and consider their linguistic options, whereas when they write this task is much simpler. He believes that when speaking, speakers do not have time to activate the Monitor tool.

Consequently, the belief that the closer two languages are the more likely it is that the learner will transfer is a well-established belief, despite some discrepancies. The fact that this proximity is more influential in understanding than it is in production and also in early learning stages, seems quite logical; and finally, that the influence of this proximity is more appreciated in speech than it is in writing also seems to be a sound appreciation.

2.3.5 Types of linguistic transfer

Linguists have traditionally identified two types of linguistic transfers: Positive transfer and negative transfer. Below these lines a variety of definitions given by different researchers can be found, to conclude referring to other transfers that are mentioned by linguists as types that are not regarded as traditional.

2.3.5.1 Positive transfer

Transfer has come to be divided into positive and negative transfer, depending on whether the result is a proper and correct linguistic construction or derives in a mistake.

The type of transfer that has been greatly dealt with in the literature is that of negative transfer, however, some scholars also talk about the positive effects of transfer. Odlin (1989) mentions the positive effect transfer can have and very noticeably has when the languages are relatively close and have many terms in common, terms that can become very helpful and lead to successful expression.

Jarvis & Pavlenko (2008) emphasize the positive outcomes of CLI especially when it leads to conventional language use and accelerated language acquisition. They distinguish between

transfer in production and transfer in reception. Transfer in production may cause the violation of grammatical norms, and transfer in reception which results from the close language typology between two languages leads to positive transfer.

Gass and Selinker (1993, p.55) also refer to these two types of transfer when they affirm: “A distinction that is commonly made is one between positive transfer (also known as facilitation) and negative transfer (also known as interference). These terms refer respectively to whether transfer results in something correct or something incorrect.”

Transfer can lead to successful oral expression, it can facilitate the understanding of written texts, and oral messages as well as making it easier for the learner to express his ideas in a written form. Odlin (1989) believes that transfer can be beneficial not simply in production, as Krashen (1983) stated, but also as a listening and reading comprehension strategy. It can produce positive transfers in different ways which include vocabulary, as the similarities between native and target language can reduce the time the speaker or learner needs to understand a written or oral text.

2.3.5.2 Negative transfer

It is curious to see how there seemed to be a negative feeling towards individuals who transferred, in addition to, towards the action of transferring itself. Jarvis & Pavlenko (2008) talk about how Adams, Janse, & Swain (2002) argued that ancient writers and philosophers made derogatory remarks about “speakers of based Greek” in addition to commenting that “A large number of ancient texts, such as epitaphs, personal letters, legal and commercial documents as well as religious and literary treatises offer evidence of negative attitudes towards the phenomenon of transfer”. (Jarvis & Pavlenko 2008, p.1)

This feeling towards individuals who transferred went even farther, Janse (2002) maintains that foreigners who transferred from their L1 when speaking Greek and, consequently speaking “bad Greek”, and individuals who spoke languages other than Greek were even called “barbarians”.

Jarvis and Pavlenko (2008) believe that: “The trend of seeing language transfer as a negative phenomenon, associated with low moral character and limited mental abilities, persisted all the way into the twentieth century.” (Jarvis and Pavlenko 2008, p. 2). They consider that it was seen as a demonstration of lack of intelligence and was regarded by native speakers, linguists and psychologists as a sign of “sloppiness, narrow-mindedness, and lack of mental clarity and sound thinking.” (Jarvis & Pavlenko 2008, p. 3)

They believe that it was not until the year 1945 that any scholar began to view transfer as an inevitable strategy of language learning, when “Charles Fries (1945), Uriel Weinreich (1953), Einar Haugen (1953), and Rober Lado (1957) moved discussions of language transfer to a scholarly flooring, legitimizing transfer as an unavoidable feature of language learning.” (Jarvis & Pavlenko 2008, p. 3).

Both conclude that we must thank scholars who along the second half of the twentieth century made an attempt to obtain a clearer insight of what this linguistic strategy consisted of and how it contributed to language learning. They affirm: “Fortunately, the notion that transfer is uninteresting, negligible, and/or the result of ignorance or sloppy thinking is gradually becoming only a smudge in the history of the field.” (Jarvis& Pavlenko 2008, p. 10).

It is definitely true that both native speakers feel that foreign language speakers show some linguistic weakness when speaking a foreign language, and that foreign language speakers feel linguistically weak when they speak a foreign language. The lack of linguistic knowledge that ultimately leads to the use of the L1 in every linguistic field and, particularly in the field of lexis, endows the speaker with a feeling of linguistic inferiority that in many cases makes him regard himself as intellectually inferior to native language (NL) speakers. This linguistic inferiority feeling is a stopper of linguistic progress, a stopper that should be balanced with the positive effect that the L1 causes, but that L2 learners as well as L2 teachers and researchers have so much difficulty seeing and identifying, and thus, using as a confidence builder.

Ellis (1985) mentions the negative effect of transfer: “It is also a popular belief that the role of the L1 in SLA is a negative one. That is, the L1 gets in the way or interferes with the learning of the L2, such that features of the L1 are transferred into the L2”. (Ellis 1985, p.19)

Ringbom (1987) considers that negative transfer occurs more frequently in speech than in writing, Dewaele (1998) and Cenoz (2001), as well as De Angleis and Selinker (2001) and Hammarberg (2001, 2009) all focused on oral production as they all believed it presents more chances and therefore, more cases of linguistic transfer.

Error is not a direct indicator of negative transfer. Error is an indicator of lack of knowledge. It is only the error that is the result of the influence of L1 or any other L2 the learner speaks that is considered negative transfer. As Ringbom (1987, p. 69) suggests: “Not all errors in learner language are due to transfer, and not all instances of transfer lead to errors”. With these last words, Ringbom is suggesting that transfer can lead to error, yet, may also lead to success.

As negative lexical transfer leads to lexical error it is appropriate to give a definition of what lexical error actually is. Agustín Llach (2005) makes an attempt to define the concept of “lexical error” and holds that there is general scholar reluctance to use the term “error”. She presents a range of terms chosen by scholars to refer to lexical errors avoiding the term “error”; these terms include:

““wrong lexical choice” (Zughoul 1991). “errors in the lexical choice” (Zughoul 1991, Lennon 1991), “lexical deviancies” (Hyltenstam 1988), “vocabulary errors” (Warren 1982), “incongruencies in lexical “gridding”” (Dagut 1977), “lexical slips of the tongue” (Nooteboom 1980), “structural slips” (Hotopf 1980), “semantic deviation” (Zimmermann 1986b, Laufer 1990a, 1991), “lexical confusions”, “synforms” (Laufer 1991), “whole-word slips of the tongue” (Hotopf 1980), “lexical approximations” (Zimmermann 1986b), “lexical simplification” (Blum-Kulka and Levenston 1978)” (Agustín Llach 2005, p.15).

She concludes that lexical error is: “The incorrect use of a lexical item (content word or idiom) in a specific context as a result of confusion between two words, owing to formal or semantic similarity and induced by mother tongue (L1) or target language (L2) influence.” (Agustín Llach 2005, p. 16). She, herself, with this last reference to similarity between L1 and L2 is addressing the issue of lexical transfer. She clarifies what is understood by the term “incorrect” by stating that it “refers to those utterances that somehow differ from those of a native speaker of the L2 (Corder 1973)” (Agustín Llach 2005, p. 16).

As for the definition given by Odlin (1989) in the previous section of positive transfer, he also gives one for negative transfer. He suggests that negative transfer is relatively easy to identify as it is the result of divergences from norms in the target language. However, he holds that in addition to linking the concept of negative transfer to errors there are other ways in which an individual's L2 expression differs from that of native speakers' and that these ways manifest themselves in a variety of forms: "underproduction, overproduction, production of errors and misinterpretation." (Odlin 1989, p. 36). *Underproduction* causes the learner to produce few or no instances of L2 language structures, and if the structure is more infrequent than in the language of the native speakers it becomes a divergence from the L2 language norms. *Overproduction* occurs when a speaker avoids a structure and thus violates the norms of the target language. With regards to *production of errors* Odlin (1989) identifies *substitutions*, *calques* and *alteration of structures*. *Misinterpretation* occurs when the learner inappropriately interprets the message expressed in his L2.

2.3.5.3 Other types of transfer

Jarvis & Pavlenko (2008) list a number of types of transfers under the heading of Area of Language knowledge/use and they include phonological, orthographic, lexical, semantic, morphological and syntactic as traditional areas of research, while they talk about discursive, pragmatic and sociolinguistic transfer as part of new areas of CLI research.

Odlin (1989) maintains that transfer is not always the result of the influence of the L1, it can also be the influence of L1 and L2 over a L3 an individual is learning. "Transfer is the influence resulting from similarities and differences between the target language and any other language that has been previously (and perhaps imperfectly) acquired." (Odlin 1989, p. 27).

Though, Odlin (1989) holds this as the natural direction of influence, he later (Odlin 2005) adds that this influence is found not only from L1 on L2 but also in trilingual and multilingual situations where "L2 can influence L3 in ways that L1 does not" (Odlin 2005, p. 4). Other researchers indicate that the directionality may vary, the transfer may be made from a

speaker's L1 to his L2 or another foreign language (L3); from his L2 or L3 to his L1. Just as transfer from L1 takes place whenever a speaker speaks a foreign language (L2 or L3), it has been proved to also occur from an L2 to the speaker's L1, from L3 to L1. Some researchers believe it can occur in a number of ways: "CLI can occur in any one of the constellation of directions, such as from L1 to L2, from L2 to L3, from L1 to L3, from L3 to L1, from L2 to L1, and so forth." (Jarvis & Pavlenko 2008, p. 21). These researchers have come to use different terms to refer to all these types of transfers. They use the terms *forward transfer* to refer to the transfer that takes place from L1 to L2, or L1 to L3; *reverse transfer* to talk about the transfer that occurs from L2 to L1, or L3 to L1; and *lateral transfer* that which happens when a learner of L2 transfers from this L2 to a L3 or from a L3 to L2. (Jarvis and Pavlenko 2008).

Ellis (1994) talks about another two types of transfer: *Intentional and unintentional*. He believes that the distinction between them is the distinction between CLI as a communicative strategy and CLI as the result of formed mental associations between elements of two languages. Jarvis & Pavlenko (2008, p. 24) support this definition of intentional and unintentional when they say that "some forms of unintentional CLI, such as unintentional language switches do not reflect communicative strategies, and we also recognize that CLI can be quite intentional" (Jarvis & Pavlenko 2008, p. 24).

2.4 Transfer history

In this section, the historical role played by cross-linguistic influence in L2 learning will be analyzed.

Before the 1960s not much attention was placed on the influence of L1 in learning and using a L2. However, as Odlin (1989, p.15) states: "Among Sweet (1899/1972), Jespersen (1912), Palmer (1917), Fries (1945), and other proponents of new methods of language teaching, there was a widespread acceptance of the idea that native language influences could greatly affect SLA." Some scholars mentioned the effect the L1 had over the L2, mainly in terms of

pronunciation. Jaspersen (1922) believed this influence was the result of a lack of interest and effort of the learner, as he did not try hard enough to alter his phonological behavior.

It was not until Henry Sweet and Harold Palmer that any importance was given to the influence of the L1 in the learning of an L2. Sweet believed that the influence that L1 had on the learning of L2 was greatly due to the proximity between both languages, the closer the languages were the more influence L1 had and the easier it was for the learner. Nonetheless, he also identified the difficulty such proximity could cause over the learner, as it could also lead to confusion because of the constant linguistic associations that the learner would be making in his mind as he spoke (Sweet 1964).

Palmer (1968, p.33), deeply influenced by Sweet, regarded proximity between two cognate languages as a learning facilitator, although he also saw it as posing some difficulties, because the learner fell into the habit of searching similarities. These similarities represented a constant temptation, which learners had to fight against. Non-cognate languages, on the other hand, he believed, are learnt through balanced study.

There are three main stages in the development of the concept of linguistic transfer:

- Behaviorist learning theory & Contrastive Analysis (CA)
- Innatism
- Cognitivism

2.4.1 Behaviorist learning theory

Behaviorism represents the first stage in the study of linguistic transfer. It had its origins in the 1930s and 1940s and gained greater importance in the 1950s, mainly through the work of Weinreich (1953) *Language in Contact*, and Lado (1957) *Linguistics Across Cultures*.

Behaviorist theory was based on the thought that the L1 of a speaker caused interference in L2 learning, as previously acquired knowledge influenced learners who attempted to attain new habits. It regarded behavior as the result of: stimulus-response-reinforcement. This meant that linguistic acquisition was similar to any other human learning process, that is,

language learning is a process of linguistic habit formation which meant that a specific linguistic stimulus produced an associated response. The behaviorists believed that language acquisition was the result of habit formation. Habits were formed when a speaker experienced a repeated association between a stimulus and a response. These habits of associating the L2 to the L1 had to be overcome so the learner could acquire new habits of the target language. “This was to be accomplished through the pedagogical practices of dialogue memorization, imitation and pattern practice.” (Larsen-Freeman, 1991, p.55).

Therefore, for a learner to acquire a new language he had to overcome old habits linked to his L1 and learn new ones (Baralo, 1996). This theory also maintained that L2 learners should avoid errors as these were regarded as the proof of a lack of learning and the result of the interference of L1 habits.

Behaviorist theory developed a theory of language learning per se. “There were few studies of SLA based on the actual language that learners produced, and few attempts to examine the process of SLA empirically before this. The dominant school in psychology, which informed most discussions of language learning, was behaviorism.” (Ellis, 1985, p.20). These discussions of language learning were based on two main concepts: ‘habits’ and ‘errors’.

From a behaviorist theory perspective, habits were a set of responses that were given to specific stimuli. The association of a response with a particular stimulus is what constituted a habit and such habits were formed when specific stimulus were linked to specific responses.

Behaviorists were interested in knowing how habits were established. As Ellis (1985, p.20) remarks: “Behaviorist psychology set out to explain behavior by observing the responses that took place when particular stimuli were present. Different stimuli produced different responses from a learner.”

Ellis continues saying that behaviorist psychologists attributed two important characteristics to habits: They were observable and automatic. This meant that “They were performed spontaneously without awareness and were difficult to eradicate unless environmental changes led to the extinction of the stimuli upon which they were built.” (Ellis, 1985, p.20).

There were various theories about how the association between stimulus and response took place. The classical behaviorism of Watson believed that the stimulus called forth the response. "If the stimulus occurred sufficiently frequently, the response became practiced and therefore automatic." (Ellis, 1985, p. 21). According to the neo-behaviorism of Skinner habits were formed in a different way. Skinner minimized the importance of the stimulus, as he believed it was not always possible to identify the stimulus that produced a certain response. He held that the behavior that followed a response was what reinforced such a response and therefore, strengthened the association in the learner's mind. Consequently, a habit could be learned through imitation or reinforcement as these were the means through which a learner identified the associations between stimulus and response.

Errors, on the other hand, occur when the two languages, the learner's L1 and L2, share a meaning but express that meaning in different ways. Thus, the learner will tend to transfer that meaning from his L1 into his L2. "Interference was the result of what was called proactive inhibition. This is concerned with the way in which previous learning prevents or inhibits the learning of new habits." (Ellis, 1985, p.22). Proactive inhibition had to be overcome if the learner were to acquire new habits.

Behaviorists regarded errors as proof of a learner's non-learning, they were undesirable and therefore, should be avoided. A careful analysis of the similarities and differences between the learner's L1 and L2 would reveal the elements which could derive in error. This identification of problem areas could be taken to the classroom practice and by working on the identified difficulties learners would overcome more easily the negative effects of L1 linguistic transfer, or what has come to be known as negative transfer, and benefit from the identification of the positive effect of such transfer, or positive transfer.

Other scholars also talked about these positive and negative effects: according to Bloomfield (1933), Fries subscribed to the behaviorist analysis which presumed that the influence of L1 was mainly the influence of old habits, some of which were helpful while others were harmful. The helpful effects would result in what we now call positive transfer and those which were harmful would result in what we have come to call negative transfer. As early as 1957 Lado affirmed that "the student who comes in contact with the foreign language will find some features of it quite easy and others extremely difficult." (Lado, 1957, p.2). He saw

that the elements that were similar to his L1 would become easy for learners to learn while those that were different would be more difficult. Once again, we can identify in Lado's view both the positive and negative effects of the L1.

The belief of habit formation remained until the 1950s when the works of Fries (1945); Weinreich (1953); Haugen (1953); and Lado (1957) regarded transfer as a prevailing characteristic of linguistic learning and use, and began to regard it as a linguistic, sociolinguistic and psycholinguistic phenomenon.

Weinreich in the 1950s first used the term *interference* to refer to cases of transfer. In his studies of bilingualism, he stated that cross-linguistic influence caused a variety of effects depending on the social context of the language contact situation. As Thomason and Kaufman (1988) held these effects can be referred to as *borrowing transfer* or *substratum transfer*. *Borrowing transfer* was seen as the influence of a L2 over a previously acquired language and *substratum transfer* as the influence of a L1 over a L2 (Odlin 1989).

Borrowing transfer and substratum transfer are similar in some ways, yet their results are often very different. Thomason and Kaufman (1988) argue that these different results show differences in social as well as linguistic factors. Borrowing transfer begins at the lexical level while "substratum transfer, normally show a different cross-linguistic influence. Thomason (1981) suggests that the effects will be more evident in pronunciation than in lexicon." (Odlin 1989, p. 13).

Fries (1957) believed that learning a L2 had very little to do with learning a L1, and that the difficulties of learning a L2 arose from the habits that the speaker's L1 had formed in his mind. He focused mainly on the habits that the L1 creates in the speakers. He stated in the work *Linguistics Across Cultures*, which was an influential manual on CA written by Lado (1957), that learning a L2 is very different to learning the L1 and he held that the main problem arose from the habits created by the L1.

Yet, Lado (1957) deemed that learners transfer not only forms but also culture from their L1 to their L2 from a linguistic perspective as well as from a cultural focus. He believed learners of an L2 did a structure-by-structure comparison of the phonological, morphological,

syntactic, and even the cultural systems to find both similarities and differences, they did this with the ultimate aim of identifying areas that would result either easy or difficult.

Despite the interest Lado showed for the transfer of culture few behaviorist scholars followed suit and they focused mainly on the grammatical and phonological transfer. There were many doubts with regards to the possibility of transfer taking forms other than that of production of habits and errors. There was a need for a perspective that did not see old habits of the L1 as interfering with new habits of the L2, and this need led to considering the possibility of learners using L1 in different ways. Ellis (1985) held that L1 influenced learning in different ways. One of such ways is that of avoidance, which occurs when L2 learners avoid using rules that are not common to their L1 rules. Another way is that of using terms from L1 to express their thoughts.

Behaviorists believed it was extremely important to develop materials specifically designed for different groups of students, students with identical L1s would theoretically require similar materials as their L1s had formed the same habits in them, and the materials that were designed should take such habits into consideration. “Teachers were encouraged (e.g. by Brooks 1960 and Lado 1964) to focus their teaching on the areas of difficulty created by negative transfer. They were exhorted to apply massive practice to overcome these difficulties.” (Ellis, 1985, p. 6).

According to the behaviorist learning theory the difficulties in L2 learning could be determined by CA.

CA was developed as a procedure that could be followed to identify areas of difficulty that could appear when learning an L2, as such difficulties were caused by the habits of the speaker’s L1. The basic idea was that by establishing the linguistic differences between the learner’s L1 and L2, learning difficulties could be identified and therefore linguistic problems could be predicted. By doing this, researchers would be able to produce listings of the grammatical structures, lexical items, and phonological elements which might derive either in successful structures, items and elements or in unsuccessful ones. The result was descriptions of the two languages which served as the basis of inter-lingual comparisons. “This resulted in a list of features of the L2 which, being different from those of the L1, were

presumed to constitute the problem areas and which were given focal attention in the teaching syllabus.” (Ellis, 1985, p. 7) Consequently, due to CA, L2 teaching techniques regarded such listings essential in the L2 classroom.

However, the beginnings of the 1970s saw a number of attempts to validate the Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis (CAH). Despite the errors that CA listed, many of the errors predicted did not arise and many errors which were not foreseen did. “As a result of this research, the importance of L1 interference was questioned and fell into disfavor.” (Ellis, 1985, p.39).

2.4.1.1 Contrastive Analysis

CA emerged as a means to find a more effective pedagogical approach to the teaching of languages. The systematic comparison between the L1 and the L2 of a learner could reveal structural and phonological patterns that could facilitate or complicate the learning of a L2.

Researchers were encouraged by the idea of finding points of similarity and difference between the L1 and L2 of students. Charles Fries, one of the leading applied linguists of the day, stated: “The most efficient materials are those that are based upon a scientific description of the language to be learned, carefully compared with a parallel description of the native language of the learner” (Fries, 1945, p.9). Statements such as this inspired a number of contrastive analyses.

2.4.1.2 Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis

According to Ellis (1985) CAH assumed that learners with different L1s would learn L2s in different ways as the L1s each of them spoke would cause different levels of difficulties. (Ellis, 1985, p.8)

Larsen-Freeman (1991) affirmed that the linguist who best expressed why language materials based on CA were more efficient was Lado, a one-time student of Fries.

“Individuals tend to transfer the forms and meanings and the distribution of forms and meanings of their native language and culture to the foreign language and culture – both productively when attempting to speak the language and to act in the culture and receptively when attempting to grasp and understand the language and culture as practiced by natives” (Lado 1957, in Gass and Selinker 1993, p.1)

Lado also believed that the elements that are similar will simplify the learning process while those that are different will make learning difficult. He claimed that “Those elements that are similar to his native language will be simple for him, and those elements that are different will be difficult” (Lado, 1957, p. 2).

The conviction that linguistic differences could be used to predict learning difficulty gave rise to the CAH. Larsen-Freeman (1991, p. 53) mentions the effect that similarities and differences were thought to cause: “Where two languages were similar, positive transfer would occur; where they were different, negative transfer, or interference, would result.”

Some researchers performed a detailed analysis of languages. Larsen-Freeman (1991) refers to Stockwell, Bowen and Martin who established what they called “*hierarchy of difficulty*”. Larsen-Freeman states that these CA scholars believed that there were different levels of difficulty:

“Their examples are of an English speaker learning Spanish. Their hierarchy is more complicated because they distinguish between structural and functional/semantic correspondence. Nevertheless, they expected the easiest linguistic point for a language learner to master to be one where the L1 and the L2 correspond structurally and functionally/semantically. Progressively more difficult are those which are coalesced, where several forms in the L1 collapse in the L2; a form which is present in the L1 but absent in the L2; and a form which is new to the L2. Most difficult of all would be the splits, where a single form in the L1 is manifest as two or more in the L2.” (Larsen-Freeman, 1991, p.54)

Gass and Selinker (1993, p.60) interpret CA as a “way of comparing languages in order to determine potential errors for the ultimate purpose of isolating what needs to be learned and what does not need to be learned in a second language learning situation.”

As described by Gass & Selinker (1993) the pedagogical materials that resulted from CA were based on the following assumptions:

1. "Contrastive analysis is based on a theory of language that claims that language is habit and that language learning involves the establishment of a new set of habits.
2. The major source of error in the production and/or reception of a second language is the native language.
3. One can account for errors by considering differences between the L1 and the L2
4. A corollary to nu. 3 is that the greater the differences, the more errors that will occur.
5. What one has to do in learning a second language is learning the differences. Similarities can be safely ignored as no new learning is involved.
6. Difficulty and ease in learning are determined respectively by differences and similarities between the two languages in contrast." (Gass & Selinker, 1993, p.60)

The skepticism about transfer was the result of the growth of empirical research, as well as of the belief that behaviorism and structuralism were becoming less and less attractive in a time when theoretical changes were occurring both in linguistics and in psychology (Odlin, 1989).

It was not until the late 1960s that the CAH was submitted to empirical investigation. Were learners' errors traceable to the effects of the L1? The findings of researchers such as Dulay and Brut (1973; 1974a) raised grave doubts about whether negative grammatical errors could be explained by L1 interference. As a result of such studies, the role of the L1 was played down and CA became less fashionable.

Ellis (1985) adds the pressure produced by theoretical attacks on the validity of behaviorist as responsible for the crisis of CA. He believes that the role of the L1 was gradually reappraised rather than rejected and that more recently, CA reflects the developments in linguistics, known as "Contrastive Pragmatics", which emphasize the communication uses of language.

Gass & Selinker (1993) blame the association of CAH with behaviorism and the publication in 1959 of Chomsky's classic review of Skinner's *Verbal Behavior* for its downfall. In his publication, Chomsky seriously challenged the behaviorist view of language acquisition.

CAH continued to be conducted despite criticisms, and the problem of identifying L1 influence is still of interest today.

2.4.1.3 Interlanguage

Corder (1971) used the term *idiosyncratic dialect* to refer to the language system an L2 learner constructs out of the linguistic input to which he has been exposed. Nemser (1971) called it *an approximative system* (Nemser, 1971) and Selinker (1972) *an interlanguage*. Of these three terms, it is that of *interlanguage* which has taken a deeper root (Gass & Selinker 1993).

Agustín Llach (2011) states that a learner's interlanguage contains all the lexical errors a learner makes, and such errors are a necessary and inevitable feature of L2 learning.

Ellis (1985) mentions that Selinker suggested that five principal processes operated in interlanguage. These processes were:

- (1) language transfer;
- (2) overgeneralization of target language rules;
- (3) transfer of training;
- (4) strategies of L2 learning;
- (5) strategies of L2 communication. (Selinker 1969, p. 67).

The concept of interlanguage has remained along the years; however, Error Analysis (EA) and CA fell into disfavor. One of the main reasons for which they did is that both focused only on errors, and this led to misleading researchers and teachers, as they did not allow them to see the whole picture. "They studied what learners were doing wrong, but not what made them successful. Furthermore, it was often difficult to identify the unitary source of an error." (Gass & Selinker 1993, p.67).

This research agrees with the previous statement by Gass & Selinker (1993), which concludes that EA does not contribute to identifying what learners are doing right. This study is based on the interlanguage of 20 USA L1-English speakers-learners of L2-Spanish. It is this interlanguage which contains the structural forms, the lexical items, the cultural frame and the phonetic systems of the learners' L1, as these participants did not speak any other L2 or

L3. An EA of their interlanguage has been performed and at the same time what could be called, an Analysis of Success, has been carried out to identify the lexical items that originated from their L1 and led the learners to successful L2 lexical items. The interlanguage samples that have been used in this research have been precious in the sense that they have shown a large number of lexical transfers and have, consequently, served their purpose well.

2.4.2 Innateness theory

Innatism is a theory of language acquisition which emerged in the 70s. It is mainly based on Chomsky's theory that holds that human beings are biologically programmed for language. Children are born with an innate capacity for language development which simplifies the task of learning a L1. Chomsky theorized that children have a language acquisition device (LAD), which is a hypothetical module of the human mind posited to account for children's innate predisposition for language acquisition. Children use LAD to make sense of the utterances that are expressed and from the data received, they derive the grammar of the language. Chomsky holds that children are born with an innate template or blueprint for language and it is this blueprint that he uses to construct a grammar (Chomsky 1965). This view is supported by Baralo (1999) as she holds that abstract principles which are common to all languages prepare, guide and aid children to somehow organize the inputting data.

Chomsky (1965) proposes that access to linguistic knowledge and language use is performed through the mental processor of Universal Grammar. Universal Grammar does not have the rules and grammar of each language but it gives access to principles and parameters that lead to such rules. Chomsky believes that there is a critical age for learning a language, 4 and 5 years of age, and that the input of a language is needed at that critical period to set the parameters and the lexicon. The learning process is performed through the formation of hypothesis which children restructure in their minds until they acquire all the rules of their L1 (Santos Gargallo, 1963).

Chomsky first proposed this hypothesis to explain the process of language acquisition experienced by children, however, this theory was later used to explain SLA. Thus, language

acquisition is no longer the result of habit formation, as believed by behaviorists, and becomes a product of rule formation that derives from the linguistic innate quality of the human mind as held by innatists. Innatism proposed a pedagogical approach to language that focused on errors as providers of useful information which could sequence items for teaching and provide remedial lessons (Ellis 1985). Innatism focused on the linguistic production of speakers and L2 learners, and it therefore, concentrated much of its attention on EA.

A series of articles by Corder (e.g. 1967;1971) helped give direction to E A. He believes that errors are invaluable because they provide information for learners, teachers and researchers, as they are the result of a learning mechanism that allows speakers to prove hypothesis about the nature of L2. Baralo (2009) holds that Corder did not simply contribute to the popularity of EA but was its initiator and the reason for EA to succeed in the language acquisition environment. Baralo (2009) describes EA as a technique of observation, identification, analysis, classification and interpretation of learners' idiosyncratic productions.

Through error classification, Corder (1967) considered that researchers could learn about the SLA process as they could, thus, infer the strategies that L2 learners were adopting. However, Corder (1967) also made a distinction between a mistake and an error. He defined a mistake as a random performance slip of the mind caused by fatigue, excitement, etc., which could easily be self-corrected, whereas an error was seen as a systematic deviation that learners make as a result of not having mastered the L2 rules. He believed that a learner cannot self-correct an error and considered that errors could not and should not be prevented as they were indications of the speakers learning process and they would ultimately lead to the acquisition of the L2 rules.

Corder (1967) believed that L1 and L2 learners make errors to test their hypothesis of the language they are learning. When he published in 1967 "The Significance of Learner Errors" he changed the view linguists had of the concept of errors. He turned the appreciation of errors around, as he held them as important pieces of information, the key evidence of learning, instead of regarding them as something that had to be avoided. They were no longer the product of imperfect learning; they became elements that proved that the learner was figuring out a totally new system.

Corder (1974) spelled out the procedure for EA by stating that the first step would be to select a corpus of language, followed by identifying the errors in the corpus, classifying them and finally explaining the errors.

This is exactly the procedure that has been followed to carry out the current research.

Ringbom (1987) believes that EA provides important information about L2 learning and that although EA has its limitations, it is an important key to better understand L2 learning processes.

Baralo (2009) regards EA as a useful tool that allows researchers to elicit data that either confirm or reject hypothesis held by previous researchers.

As we can see, from the very beginning EA has been used to support a variety of theories, and among these theories is that which interests this research most: The influence and the role that L1 plays in the linguistic structuring, and lexical choice of L2 lexical items. This paper has thus used EA to identify the negative lexical transfers the participants in this project used.

2.4.3 Cognitivist theory

At the end of the 1980s the last stage related to language learning and linguistic transfer analysis emerged. This theory studies the way in which the mind interprets, processes and stores information. Cognitivist theory holds that all learning processes follow the same procedures: perception, memory, information processing and problem solving mechanisms. Cognitivism focusses on the way the human mind thinks and learns.

Cognitivism regards linguistic transfer as a process or a complex cognitive strategy in which L1 knowledge is activated when a L2 speaker uses and develops his interlanguage. This process is most relevant when a speaker's lack of knowledge needs to be leveled off.

It is based on the cognitive-psychological approach which believes that language acquisition must be viewed within the context of a child's intellectual development. Linguistic structures

will emerge if there is an established cognitive foundation. It focuses on exploring the links between the stages of cognitive development and language skills. Its main figure is Jean Piaget and he believed that during the earliest period of language learning, the age of 18 months, children develop what he called “sensory motor” intelligence, in which children construct a mental picture of a world of objects that have independent existence.

2.5 Lexical transfer

It is only in recent years that much more information on CLI and transfer in Target Language Acquisition (TLA) in general has become available. The first major studies and discussions of transfer phenomenon in TLA emerged during the 1990s and it is only since then that this field of research has been developing rapidly (Boratynska-Sumara 2015).

According to Jarvis (2009), lexical transfer can be defined as "the influence that a person's knowledge of one language has on that person's recognition, interpretation, processing, storage and production of words in another language." (Jarvis, 2009, p. 99). The terms “transfer” and “CLI” are used by many researchers interchangeably to refer to this phenomenon.

Transfer seems to occur more frequently in lexis than in other aspects of language, and the reason this is so is the great richness of lexical items as compared to the grammatical structures. In fact, Ringbom (1987) considers that transfer is not simply more frequent in lexis, he believes it occurs primarily in lexis, though he (Ringbom, 2001, 2007), as well as Bouvy (2000), do conclude that it is more frequently found in lexis when the transfer occurs between non-native languages (Burton, 2013). Agustín Llach (2010, p. 119) insists on the lexicon being the most influenced by transfer, when she reveals that it “is considered one of the language aspects most permeable to the L1 and lexical transfer reveals itself as a prominent compensatory learning strategy” Other researchers believe that both lexis and phonology are the language areas most affected by transfer (Arabski 2006).

As for the type of words that are most frequently transferred, Williams and Hammarberg (1998) suggest that function words are more susceptible to transfer as they are generally

automatized. Ringbom (1987) supports this belief as he concludes that this is so because learners tend to pay less attention to function than to content words. (Burton, 2013)

At what age and at what level of L2 knowledge L2 learners transfer most appears not to be clear. According to Naves *et al.* (2005) citing Liddicoat (1991) “Younger learners draw on the L1 more often than older learners than it is in older learners” (Naves *et al.* 2005, p. 113). Whereas, Cenoz (2003) holds the opposite belief. With regards to proficiency some researchers state that low L2 level learners transfer more elements from their L1 than more proficient learners (Möle, 1989; Poullisse, 1990; Poullisse & Bongaerts, 1994; Woodall 2002). However, the opposite conclusion has also been reached, that is, the more proficient students are, the more they transfer (Naves *et al.*, 2005).

It is not only the form of the words that is transferred from one language into another, it is also their order, how the words are produced and how they are processed, this relationship between words is what is known as interconnectedness of words. (Jarvis and Pavlenko, 2008)

Jarvis (2009) believes lexical transfer occurs through two different processes that take place in the mental lexicon. He talks about lexemic and lemmatic transfer. Lexemic transfer includes the phonological and the graphemic structure of a word, for instance, with respect to the word *go*, the lexemic transfer deals with the knowledge a person has on how to pronounce and write the various forms of such word, that is, *go*, *goes*, *went*, *gone* and *going*; whereas, lemmatic transfer refers to syntactic and semantic properties of a word.

The semantic properties of a word are:

- Mental association between lemmas and concepts, which include polysemy and semantic varieties of a word;
- mental associations between lemmas, which include synonymy, antonymy and other types of word associations (Ringbom 2007, pp.27-28).

The syntactic properties are:

- The syntactic categories of a word, such as nouns or verbs, ...
- their subcategorizations,
- and other inherent syntactic characteristics, such as their grammatical genre.

The activation level of a word in one language, in which the speaker is not expressing his thoughts, competes with another word in the language in which the speaker is speaking and such word may be unconsciously introduced in his speech, or keep the speaker from finding the word he is seeking, or lead the speaker to create a hybrid. The speaker leans on his L1 both consciously and subconsciously (Dewaele, 1998; Celaya y Torres, 2001; Naves *et al.*, 2005). Therefore, lexical transfer may take place through a subconscious reflex, but it may also occur through a conscious exercise in which the speaker borrows, creates or transforms a lexeme from his L1 or from any other language he may speak, in an attempt to solve a linguistic problem, he encounters when expressing his ideas.

As mentioned above, lexical transfer may be the result of either a conscious or a subconscious action and is produced by the speaker's perception of similarity between the words of two or more languages. Ringbom (2007) regards formal lexical similarity to precede semantic similarity. Zimmermann (1987) shares this belief when he states that formal similarity leads to semantic equivalence. Lexical similarity between the words of a learner's L1 and L2 provides him with a considerable lexical load whereas, when two languages are distant and the lexical elements of both languages are significantly different, that load is considerably reduced.

The lexical proximity between two languages has an influence over the likelihood of lexical transfers that a learner may understand and use, as lexical transfers are based on the knowledge the speaker has already acquired. Consequently, the more formal similarity there is between the L1 and L2 of a learner, the more he will profit from his L1 in learning to understand and speak the new language, and the more common the use of lexical transfers will be. As Ringbom (1986, p. 151) affirms: "The learner of a related language also quickly notices numerous examples of formal and semantic identity or near-identity between lexical items in two related languages, his automatized L1 knowledge of these items can easily be extended to L2." He considers that "lexical items which are cross-linguistically similar to L1-items already stored will be understood best of all by learners learning closely related languages." (Ringbom, 1987, p. 35).

This lexical similarity between L1 and L2 does not only influence the number of words a learner may understand, and transfer but it also has the effect of making learning the learner's

L2 easier. Many linguists and language teachers believe that similarities and dissimilarities in word forms, as well as similarities and dissimilarities in word meanings, have a prime role in the speed a L2 may be learned by speakers of another language. (Boratynska-Sumara 2015).

Linguistic proximity between L1 and L2 is responsible for the facilitating effect of L2 lexical learning; yet, lexical knowledge also has an effect over the overall L2 knowledge a learner has. Singleton (1999) says that lexical learning is much more than just lexical association between similar terms or semi-similar terms in L1 and L2. As learners become more proficient they realize words do not have a direct relationship with others in a L2, but they begin to appreciate polysemy, homonymy and therefore, realize that one word may have different meanings when used in different contexts. The knowledge that words have various dimensions has to do with the learning of systems and not with the learning of items. De Bot (2004) believes that access to a learner's mental lexicon is not selective, that is, the words of different languages compete both from a production and a perception perspective, and a speaker must have a specific linguistic level in his L2 for the lexical items of that L2 to interfere with those of another language he may speak.

It seems logical therefore, to see lexical similarity as an effect that may result in transfer. It also seems clear that the linguistic level a learner has of a certain L2 also has to do with the type and frequency of such transfer. And on the other hand, the area in which lexical items are stored in our brain, and the different ways of lexical linguistic knowledge, that is, phonological, morphological, syntactic and semantic knowledge also have an effect over lexical transfer.

With this in mind, Keatley (1992) questioned whether L1 and L2 lexicons share a common conceptual storage or, if they are stored in separate brain compartments. Today most bilingual models, except the *Model of distributed features* (De Groot, 1992), consider that while L1 and L2 phonetic and morphosyntactic forms differ, meanings and/or concepts are shared (Kroll and Stewart, 1994).

Native speakers, according to Ringbom (2007), reach a certain organizational level in their mental lexicon that seems to influence the way that words are set according to content and

not to form. However, children and L2 learners seem to organize their mental lexicon with regards to form rather than meaning, and therefore phonologic and spelling similarities influence them more than similarity in meaning. Jarvis (2009) also points out that the knowledge a person has of the lexical features related to form (how a word is spelt or pronounced in its different forms) are stored separately from the knowledge of syntactical and semantic associations, which are also stored separately from conceptual knowledge. Researchers are still trying to determine how the elements that constitute lexical knowledge relate with each other in a speaker's mind, and are also trying to understand how lexical transfer is set out in the mind of speakers that can speak more than one language.

Kempen and Huijbers (1983) and Kempen and Hoenkamp (1987) expressed the idea that lemmas and lexemes are stored separately in the brain of a speaker. Kempen's understanding of lexemic and lemmatic concepts almost entirely coincides with Jarvis (2009) as he mentions that a lemma refers to semantic-syntactic characteristics of a word whereas, lexemes refer to morphonological properties; the difference being that Jarvis (2009) includes the graphemic features of a word within the lemmatic classification, as has been seen above.

Ainciburu (2008) also defines lexemes and lemmas. She believes a lexema includes the morphological properties of words whereas the lemma concerns the semantic properties.

On a completely different ground, we must consider the factors that influence transfer, the most important of which according to Ringbom (1987) are:

1. *"Stage of learning:* The role of the L1 in L2-learning is most important at the early stages of learning and decreases as learning progresses. This is due to the fact, that L2 knowledge of a beginning learner is so limited that he needs to believe that the L2 will be in many, or at least in some, respects work in a similar way to his L1. While intermediate and advanced learners will show a complex interaction of L1- and L2-influence, with the former decreasing as he reaches L2 proficiency.
2. *Individual characteristics of the learner.* The extent of the transfer load will vary with the individual characteristics of a learner: depending on how willing and successful a learner is to infer meaning from inter-lingual cues and to what extent he will be influenced by formal and functional similarities to the L1 in production.
3. *Individual styles of learning.* Learners who have learned a number of languages may make use of the so-called key-word method for learning new L2-words. This method depends on

the learner forming associations between a new L2-word and a L1-equivalent which has some phonological similarity.

4. *The learner's knowledge of other languages.* A learner's language may reflect not only his L1 but also other languages he may speak.
5. *The learner's age and the mode of learning.* Adults seem to make more use of L1 than children.
6. *Type of utterance.* Elicited utterances may show more cross-linguistic influence than spontaneous utterances.
7. *Level of linguistic analysis.* The type of cross-linguistic influence varies depending on the different linguistic levels analyzed." (Ringbom, 1987, p. 63)

Not all researchers agree on the influence the "type of utterance" has over transfer. Agustín Llach (2010) believes learners tend to produce lexical transfers in their oral expression more than in written texts, and she adds that most studies which have analyzed lexical transfers in written texts support this fact (cf. Celaya & Naves, 2009). Agustín Llach (2010) regards the amount of time a writer has to consider his lexical options a determining element in this respect. This belief is supported by Ringbom (1987) who considers that this is so as a result of the limited control the learner has in speech situations and believes this would suggest that researchers tend to study lexical transfer more in oral production than in writing. However, an analysis of lexical transfer papers indicates that more research is done on written texts than on oral speech. Two researchers who concentrated on oral production are: Dewaele (1998), and Cenoz (2001).

Other researchers believe that learners are more prone to produce lexical transfers in informal language settings. "Dewaele (2001) reports that informal speech settings induced more cases of lexical insertions" (Dewaele, 2004, in Odlin & Jarvis 2004, p. 126).

2.5.1 Positive and negative lexical transfer

The concepts of positive and negative transfer and that of positive and negative lexical transfer have been in the minds of linguists at least since the mid-20th century. Jarvis & Pavlenko (2008, p.25) affirm: "The terms positive and negative transfer date back at least to Selinker (1969), and the notions behind them date back even further (e.g. Weinreich, 1953)".

Whenever the lexical similarity between L1, or any other language the speaker may speak, and L2 has a facilitating lexical effect and consequently, constitutes a support for the learner to express his ideas, it is regarded as positive; whereas, when the lexical use the learner makes of his L1 vocabulary, or words of any other language he may speak, leads to error it is regarded as negative.

Positive lexical transfer, thus, is that lexical transfer which is the result of this facilitating effect and would consequently, lead the learner to a successful choice of words in L2; whereas negative transfer would have the opposite effect and it would lead the L2 learner to lexical error. Agustín Llach (2016a, p. 1) comments “We can distinguish between positive, e.g. cognates, and negative transfer, which results in erroneous rendering...It can be the result of an unconscious process, a conscious compensatory strategy, or the by-product of applying an equivalence assumption”.

Ringbom (1987, p. 45) talks about Palmer (1968, p.33f) saying: “The resemblances between two cognate languages constitute both a facility and a source of danger”. It is this resemblance that may lead to both “facility”, which would result in positive lexical transfer and “danger”, which would derive in negative lexical transfer.

Other scholars agree with this statement. Sweet (1964, p. 54f) believes that the similarity between two languages may be both a help and a source of confusion. “But this very likeness is often a source of confusion. It is a help to the beginner... but it is a hindrance to any thorough knowledge, because of the constant cross-associations that are sure to present themselves”. Sweet had a structuralist approach to language, and therefore, believed that the L1 was mainly an obstacle in foreign language learning.

Nevertheless, Ringbom (1986) opposes this view as he considers that the importance of positive transfer has been belittled by that of negative transfer, yet, the positive effect is still there and it may be that speakers produce more instances of positive transfer than of negative, the difficulty being the identification of positive transfer. He maintains:

“It is perhaps inevitable that research on foreign language learning starting out from error analysis has taken little account of the “positive transfer” effect of previous linguistic knowledge. It is difficult to determine exactly the extent of positive influence, compared with negative influence,

since the only tangible signs of cross-linguistic influence are negative ones, errors. But we may assume that the errors showing negative influence are more than compensated for by instances of correct production and comprehension” Ringbom (1986, p. 160)

He later goes on to say:

“The linguistic discussion of transfer has nearly always occurred in the context of error analysis, and what has been seen as tangible evidence of transfer has almost invariably been negative transfer. Here the difference in task complexity between studying positive and negative effects of cross-linguistic influence must be considered. It is a relatively straightforward task to compare differences of the learner’s end product, his interlanguage, with the L2-norm and on the basis of these differences conclude that many errors in the learner’s production are clearly influenced by the L1. It is much more complicated to specify exactly where or how the learner’s L1 has facilitated his L2- comprehension or L2-production.” (Ringbom 1987, p. 58)

Ringbom concludes that it is much simpler to identify negative transfer as it involves the simple identification of L2 errors that stem from L1 influence, while the positive effect of L1 influence both in L2 production and comprehension is much more complex and therefore, difficult to identify. He is one of the linguists who most defends the positive effect of cross-linguistic influence and believes that the expected number of positive transfer cases is similar to that of negative transfer cases. He declares:

“One question which has to be raised is whether and to what extent we are justified in assuming that evidence of much negative transfer also implies an equivalent amount of positive transfer. Without data from empirical investigations an answer to this question may well be hazardous, but it seems that when perceived similarities to the L1 lie behind the influence of the L1 – i.e. when it is a question of overt cross-linguistic influence – there is, in principle, as much corresponding positive transfer as negative transfer.” (Ringbom 1987, p. 59).

The present research agrees with Ringbom with regards to the difficulty that identifying positive transfer has, and, also, with the fact that such positive transfer may be either similar or more significant in number than negative transfer or errors, as these are much simpler to find, and this is so not only from a general linguistic perspective, but more specifically from a lexical perspective. For this reason, an effort to identify the positive lexical transfers made by the participants in this research has been made to obtain a balanced picture and avoid a

one-sided perspective which emphasizes the most negative effect of L1-influence while it disregards the lexical benefits this phenomenon produces when learning a L2.

In conclusion, lexical transfer is the influence the lexical knowledge of one language has over the lexical knowledge and use of another language, and it arises when there is lexical similarity between the two languages, although it is more significant at certain levels of L2 knowledge than at others, and it is influenced by the way the lexical elements are stored in the learners' brain. L2 learners associate L2 words with their L1 or L3 lexical items, both formally and semantically.

2.5.2 Cognates

Once the concept and factors that influence lexical transfer have been considered a special look will be given to cognates, as they have been believed to be the most significant elements of lexical transfer, though they do not play such an important role with regards to how frequently they are used by learners, and neither are they the only type of word that is transferred. Jarvis (2009, p. 107) defines true cognates as: "Those words that derive from a single word in the language from which two languages have sprung". This is the strict definition of cognate, yet, there are also cognates which are known as: "Deceptive cognates and false cognates, or false friends which are: cross-linguistic word pairs that are (1) formally the same or similar and (2) semantically similar or dissimilar (but not the same)." (Jarvis 2009, p.107)

Molnar (2010) considers that cognate-based instruction has a positive effect over vocabulary acquisition, as it accentuates the appreciation of cognates and therefore, lexical learning. Ringbom (2007), on the other hand, believes that learners use cognates more frequently than they are, in fact, used in L2. Some words that are frequently used in one language may be associated with low frequency cognates in another language. Therefore, it is possible that learners use cognates that do exist in L2 yet, are not frequently used. The word *commence*, used by French speakers when speaking English is not wrong in itself, but it is not a natural word, nor is it frequently used by native English speakers, *start* and *begin* would be much

more appropriate. Consequently, it is important for learners to know to what extent cognates are appropriate with regards to likelihood and register. However, “cognates always present a facilitating effect with regards to understanding, not so in production” (Meara 1993, p. 284).

An interesting question is whether facilitating cognates occur more frequently than false friends/cognates. It seems that both learners and teachers give more significance to cognates that lead to error than they should because they, in fact, do not represent such difficulty nor do they so frequently lead to error. The use of facilitating cognates is higher than that of false friends. Hammer & Monod (1976) state that the relationship between false friends and facilitating cognates from French to English is 11 to 1. Even if we regard this figure as erroneous, the importance of positive transfer with regards to lexical items and cognates cannot be minimized as they do have a clearly facilitating effect with regards to understanding and, also to production.

With regards to the types of words that seem to be more likely to be transferred Boratynska-Sumara (2015) adds that cognates provide semantic, morphological and syntactic information that is very valuable to learners and can both facilitate L2 acquisition and mislead. Therefore, learners have to be aware of how useful and, at the same time, how risky cognates are when learning a L2. Other researchers do not see the risk posed by cognates on the contrary, they believe that the existence of cognates - the greatest examples of lexical similarity between two languages - in the target language greatly facilitates learning (Hammer 1978; Hammer & Monod 1976; Morrissey 1978).

The use of cognates also seems to be related to the language level of students, low-level learners, whether children or adults, have difficulties recognizing cognates (Aquinaga Echevarria 2012; Dressler 2000). Yet, other researchers believe that cognates facilitate L2 learning at low learning stages (Serrander, 2011).

In addition, this facilitating effect of cognates appears to be most significant in the receptive skills; yet, they also have an influence in the production skills. In addition, deceptive cognates, or what is informally called false friends, have been regarded as having a negative influence over not only understanding, but also over production, and this has excelled their true importance. Yet, vocabulary is regarded by learners as the area of language which is

most important and learners seem to highlight the true significance of deceptive cognates and fear them to extremes that are not truly logical.

“Since vocabulary appears to be the area of which learners are most conscious and the false friends often produce ludicrous or otherwise memorable effects in the learner language, it is easy for the deceptive cognates to assume an importance in learner’s minds which is out of proportion to their significance. (Ellis 1985, p. 104)

While some researchers, such as Ringbom (1996), believe that lexical transfer takes place almost without exception from the learner’s L1, “What is an essential requirement is that lexical transfer is almost without exception L1-based.” (Ringbom 1986, p. 158); others believe lexical transfer occurs not only from L1 to L2, but from any other L2 the learner may speak, and even from L2 to L1. One of such researchers is Agustín Llach (2016a) who poses the question: “What is lexical transfer?” And then offers the answer: “The influence of a (previously known) language on another language (being learned).” (Agustín Llach 2016a, slide 3). As can be appreciated, she does not state: the influence of L1 on another language being learned, but “*of a previously known*” language, which indicates that she believes firmly that lexical transfer may occur not only from L1 but from other languages the learner speaks.

The lexical items of the learner’s L1 can either lead to error or to success in the understanding and the production of the learner’s L2; however, in the case of success the researcher can never be sure whether the lexical item that the learner has used successfully and properly truly derives from a lexical item in his L1 or not. This is truly so and is thus held by researchers “Lexical transfer may, however, frequently lead the learner to a fully acceptable word, but in these instances a researcher can seldom establish that the use of a word has been the result of lexical transfer.” (Ringbom 1987, p. 115). This paper totally agrees with the idea that a researcher can never be sure of either the successful transfer result nor of the erroneous transfer result, it is all a question of knowledge of the two languages being spoken, of intuition and of feeling, none of which are truly scientifically based.

Ringbom also stresses the use that positive transfer could be given in the classroom. The use of this successful strategy could be very positive if used properly by teachers. “In one area, lexis, there are investigations revealing the great importance of positive transfer. These

studies often suggest ways in which such advantages for the learner could be maximally utilized in teaching.” (Ringbom 1987, p. 58).

Language teachers who teach a L2 which is a cognate language to their learners’ L1 should find a balance as to the amount of information they offer their students with regards to cognates. At early learning stages the perception of cognate similarities between L1 and L2 may facilitate learning, and at advanced learning stages it might make sense to underline the significance of false friends and lexical register.

According to Granger (1993), researchers need to know the importance and interaction of six variables if they are to appreciate the relevance of cognates in learning and teaching. These variables are the following:

The level of formal and semantic similarity;

1. “The extent to which cognates occur in similar contexts;
2. Frequency and knowledge of whether they are core, non-core, or subject-core;
3. Learner’s learning stage;
4. Knowledge of whether L2 target vocabulary is general or specific;
5. And whether learners are developing an understanding or a production skill.” (Granger 1993, p. 51)

2.5.3 Types of lexical transfer

Lexical errors will be the basis on which a definition of lexical transfer types will be based, as errors have received most attention along the years of lexical transfer research, and as they are the elements that reveal the vast majority of lexical transfer cases. Corder (in Baralo 1996) believes that systematic errors reveal the knowledge a L2 learner has.

Meara (1996) assumes that the amount of significant lexical errors, that is, those that interfere in the communication process of an intermediate-level learner is very high. Ainciburu (2008, p. 1) says that “Meara proposes the figure of 3 or 4 lexical errors for every grammatical error.” The average of lexical errors is significantly higher than that of any other type of error,

in fact, according to Gass & Selinker (2008) lexical errors constitute most L2 errors. Learners and L1 speakers also regard lexical errors as highly significant and they believe these errors are the most important type of error, and regard them as the most important obstacles in communication” (Gass & Selinker, 2008), they are also seen by native speakers as the most confusing to interpret (Fernández, 1997), and the ones that interfere mostly in communication (Gass, 1988).

Ringbom (1987, 2007) sees the concept of transfer within that of EA, and therefore, believes that what has been regarded as transfer has always been negative transfer. It is infinitely easier to recognize an error made by an L2 learner than to perceive L1’s positive effect when acquiring an L2. Yet, cognates have been recognized as elements that produce a positive effect in L2 learning, as they facilitate learning (Hammer & Monod, 1976; Morrissey, 1978) and very significantly regarding comprehension.

Jarvis (2009) maintains that “the scope of lexemic transfer includes both the phonological and graphemic structure of a (particular form of a) word. The scope of lemmatic transfer, on the other hand, relates to the semantic and syntactic properties of words.”(Jarvis, 2009, p. 102).

According to Jarvis (2009, p. 102) the semantic properties in question are:

- “1.- mental associations between lemmas and concepts, which account for phenomena such as polysemy and semantic ranges of words and
- 2.- mental associations between lemmas and other lemmas, which are fundamental to phenomena such as synonymy, antonymy and other types of word-word associations. (Ringbom, 2007, p 27-28).

The syntactic properties, by comparison, concern:

- 1.-a word’s specified syntactic category (e.g. noun, verb, etc...)
- 2.- its subcategorization frame (e.g. thankful is followed by a prepositional phrase beginning with for),
- 3.- and various other inherent syntactic specifications, such as the word’s grammatical gender (cf. Roelofs, 1992).

Some syntagmatic specifications of words such as collocational knowledge (e.g. birds chirp but geese honk and owls hoot) and knowledge of the makeup of compound words (e.g. billboard), phrasal verbs (e.g. look at) and fixed expressions (e.g. so to speak) involve syntactic and semantic specifications simultaneously, which indeed strengthens the rationale for treating words' syntactic and semantic specifications together under the umbrella of lemmatic transfer." (Jarvis, 2009, p. 102)

There is a variety of lexical transfer classifications. Ringbom (1987) classifies Cross-linguistic influence in production into: *Overt* and *Covert*. *Overt* is that cross-linguistic influence which "depends on perceived similarities" whereas, "*Covert* is due to lack of perceived similarities." (Ringbom 1987, p. 51)

Ringbom is mainly concerned with the distinction between *transfer of form* and *transfer of meaning*. He divides overt lexical transfer instances in two main categories *borrowings* with the subcategories: language switches or complete language shifts and language coinages (hybrids, blends, relexifications), and, as the second category, *lexical transfer* instances with the subcategories: totally or partially deceptive cognates, false friends and subcategories that illustrate the transfer of meaning: semantic extensions of single lexical units, loan translations and calques of multi-words units.

Dentler (2000) divides the observed transfer errors into four groups: borrowings, false friends, calques and semantic extensions.

Cenoz (2001) distinguishes between two types of CLI: "Code switching understood as whole sentences produced in L1 or L2 without appealing to the interlocutor for help, and transfer understood as the use of L1 one or more terms, as part of the utterance produced in L3, which includes borrowings and foreignizings" (Cenoz 2001, p. 11).

Other researchers focus on the variety of strategies that L2 learners rely on to express their thoughts when they lack the term they need in L2 (Dewaele, 1998; González Álvarez, 2004; Poulisse, 1993; Rababah, 2002). These expression mechanisms are known as communication or compensatory strategies and have a lexical character, as lexical items are the tools that are needed to communicate ideas, thoughts, information, ... In the literature (Poulisse, 1993; Salazar Campillo, 2006) we find a distinction between reconceptualization strategies and substitution strategies. The former includes circumlocution and literal translation, the latter,

borrowing, foreignizing and all purpose words. These strategies help learners “cover lexical gaps and not abandon communication” (Agustín Llach 2010, p. 530).

The classifications presented above have not been followed as they are excessively basic and incomplete. On the other hand, this research has focused on the classification of lexical transfer offered by Jarvis (2009) as, it is highly comprehensive, complete and precise. This classification is reproduced below in its complete form after presenting an overview of linguistic transfer presented by Jarvis & Pavlenko (2008).

Jarvis & Pavlenko (2008) refer to the distinction between “*linguistic transfer* related to linguistic forms and structures, and *conceptual transfer* related to mental concepts which underlie those forms” (Jarvis, Pavlenko, 2008 p. 61). With respect to lexical transfer in TLA Jarvis and Pavlenko (2008) believe that linguistic transfer has received most attention from researchers:

“The ability to access a word in one’s mental lexicon (language activation), knowledge of how the word is pronounced and spelled in its various forms (morphophonology), and semantics: knowledge of the meanings of the word, the word combinations in which it conventionally occurs (collocations) and the word’s associations with other words and notions. Morphophonological errors are called *formal transfer* and include the use of a false cognate, lexical borrowings or lexical inventions, and *semantic transfer* can be characterized as the use of a target language word with a meaning that reflects the influence from the semantic of a corresponding word in another language (Ringbom 2001. p. 64).” (Jarvis & Pavlenko 2008, p. 73-74)

Jarvis (2009) begins his classification by offering a distinction between Lexemic and Lemmatic transfer, and thereon, presenting categories within these two groups.

2.5.3.1 Lexemic transfer

The distinction between lexemic and lemmatic transfer is similar to Ringbom’s (1987,2001) distinction between formal and semantic transfer. Lexical errors involving formal transfer, in Ringbom’s framework, include:

- (1) the use of deceptive or false cognates (Ringbom 1987),

- (2) unintentional language switches involving the use of words from the wrong language, and
 - (3) coinages of new words by blending the formal properties of words from different languages.
- The first two categories involve the use of an inappropriate word, and the third category relates to transfer-induced errors in the pronunciation and spelling of words.” (Jarvis 2009, p. 106)

Jarvis (2009) distinguishes between true historical cognates (e.g. English *house* and Swedish *hus*) and those that are not. Those which are not are what he calls deceptive cognates, which are also referred to as “false cognates” and “false friends”.

The next type of lexemic lexical transfer according to Jarvis (2009) is “unintentional language switches”, which involve the selection of a word from the wrong language, that Poulisse (1999) calls slips of the tongue.

Then come “coinages of new words” which are words that have been “created by the combination of the formal properties of words from different languages (e.g. *if I found gold, I would be lucky* – “*If I found gold, I would be happy*”, influenced by Swedish *lucklig* – “happy” from Ringbom 1987 p. 154). This is perhaps the type of lexemic transfer that most obviously involves the level of lexemes, given that it is specifically the forms of words that are modified through this type of transfer. In many cases, the coinages involve the blending of two clearly identifiable words from two different languages (e.g. the example of *luckly* given earlier), but sometimes they also entail the use of a word stem from one language with inflectional morphology from another (e.g. *All these wooden golves must be cleaned*, Sw. *golve* = “floor”; Ringbom 1987 p. 154) or even the modification of the word stem itself to make it seem like a word of the target language (e.g. *Don’t walk under a stedge*, Sw. *stege* = “ladder”; Ringbom 1987 p. 89).

Ringbom (1978; 1987; 2001) found that blends and coinages are far more likely to involve related languages (Swedish and English) than unrelated ones (Finnish and English).” (Jarvis 2009, p. 111, 112).

Examples and explanations of these three types of lexemic transfer can be found in chapter 4 of the present research.

2.5.3.2 Lemmatic transfer

Lematic transfer would correspond with Ringbom's description of semantic transfer, but it also extends beyond semantic transfer to include the collocational, morphological and syntactic constraints on words.

Although there are potentially many types of lemmatic transfer Jarvis (2009) refers to four:

- (1) semantic extensions,
- (2) calques,
- (3) collocational transfer, and
- (4) subcategorization transfer.

Semantic extensions and calques were referred to by Ringbom (1987, 2001), and the other two have been receiving significant importance in recent literature. The four categories have in common that a person's knowledge of a lemma includes the word's semantic associations and syntactic constraints (e.g. De Bot 2004; Kempen & Huijber 1983). Semantic associations are mental links between a lemma and one or more concepts, and syntactic constraints can be considered mental links between lemmas. Therefore, semantic extensions are a matter of lemma-concept links, whereas the other three types are a matter of how lemmas are linked to one another (Jarvis 2009)

Calques are loan translation which may involve simple compound words that are transferred from one language to another, such as *youngman* (for *bachelor*, from Swedish *ungkarl* "young man" Ringbom 2001, p. 64). (Jarvis 2009)

Collocational transfers are semantic transfers that result from the translation of compound words in L1, it involves the translation of words that conventionally co-occur in L1 and result in a translation of such collocation into L2.

And finally, subcategorization transfers involve a headword (such as an adjective or verb) and its complement (such as a noun phrase or a prepositional phrase). Generally, "the wrong type of complement is chosen, such as a prepositional phrase instead of a noun phrase (e.g. *She*

kissed with him versus *She kissed him*) or a noun phrase instead of a prepositional phrase (e.g. *He was thinking his mother* versus *He was thinking about his mother*).” (Jarvis 2009, p. 117). Yet, in some cases, the subcategorization transfer involves the choice of a wrong word within the complement (e.g. *late from an appointment* versus *late for an appointment*; Meriläinen 2006, p. 135).

According to Agustín Llach (2011) formal lexical errors, which would result from lexemic transfer, significantly decrease as proficiency levels increase; semantic lexical errors, which would be the consequence of lemmatic transfer, also decrease as L2 knowledge increases, yet, such decrease is less outstanding. She believes that this is so because L2 learners at advanced levels organize their mental lexicon from a meaning perspective rather than by form.

2.6 Lexical transfer positive for communication

Several researchers have mentioned the fact that some errors may result in successful communication. Other researchers (Enjuto 2013, 2014, 2016) hold that not only general errors but errors and non-errors that are the result of lexical transfer result –in successful communication.

Larsen-Freeman and Long (1991) say that researchers have identified types of errors, that by Selinker is the communication-based errors (Selinker 1972), which resulted when speakers invoked communicative strategies, and they add that “these errors may lead to success in communication”. They go on to provide an example: “The learner uses “airball” for balloon (word coinage, Tarone 1980), the learner incorrectly labels an object but successfully communicates a desired concept”. (Larsen-Freeman and Long 1991, p. 58) Therefore, the type of error they propose is a lexical error, though they do not specify if it is the result of transfer or not.

Boratynska-Sumara (2015) also refers to the successful effect in communication of lexical errors: An error may be the result of a mental process that “could reflect a highly developed

metalinguistic awareness and lead to success in communication when, although wrong or inappropriate, it is still comprehensible”. (Boratynska-Sumara 2015, p. 138)

More significant and conclusive though, are the various references made by Agustín Llach (2016a) in her presentation “Lexical transfer and its modelling factors: insights from research” given at Universidad de Vitoria Workshop on Cross-linguistic Influence: Working with Cross-linguistic Effects in the Classroom. In five of her slides she presented the concept of negative lexical transfer, using a question mark after the term negative (slides: 4, 8, 11, 12, 13); on slides 14 and 15 she even went as far as to say that “Negative lexical transfer might not be so negative afterall!!!”. On slide 13 she suggests: “it might lead to successful communication...”. In fact, below a reproduction of slide 11 in its totality can be found, a part of which was also shown in slides 12 and 13.

- “Negative
 - (grally.) results in a lexical error,
 - Might hinder or impede communication,
 - Might provoke irritability on listener/reader,
 - Might damage speaker’s image.
- But
- helps scaffolding and thus learning
- Compensates for lack of lexical knowledge

(application of communicative strategy):

- Good language learners do this → good language learners transfer
- Might lead to successful communication and avoid message abandonment.” (Agustín Llach 2016a, slides 12 & 13)

Enjuto (2013) carried out a research of the lexical transfers made by USA speakers of L1-English learners of L2-Spanish in their oral speech; it concluded that the results of the research indicated that the lexical transfers used by the participants in the study had contributed and favored communication with the interviewer. In the chapter of conclusions, it stated “the true effect of lexical transfer is positive” (Enjuto 2013, p. 96). It went on to say: “However, from an empirical perspective we conclude that transfer, in general terms, has a

positive effect over communication, and therefore hold that L2 language learners should exercise their use and do so to favor communication”² (Enjuto 2013, p. 98)

Then again, at a presentation (Enjuto, 2014) given at Universidad Antonio de Nebrija’s II Congreso Internacional Nebrija en Lingüística aplicada a la enseñanza de lenguas, slide 15 stated:

“Lexical transfer effect → positive”

Lastly, at Universidad de Vitoria Workshop on Cross-linguistic Influence: Working with Cross-linguistic Effects in the Classroom, the poster: “Is negative lexical transfer truly negative?” (Enjuto, 2016) was shown. In it several examples of lexical transfer cases that have been used by some of the participants in the present research were represented and the conclusions at the foot of the poster stated: “Negative lexical transfers as categorized by Odlin (1989), Ellis (1996) and Ringbom (1987, 2007) are actually not negative from a communicative perspective because, although erroneous in form, they facilitate communication”. (Enjuto 2016)

Jarvis and Pavlenko (2008) also question negative transfer as simply a transfer that is erroneous, or whether that concept should depend on its intelligibility when they stated: “Determining whether an instance of CLI is positive or negative requires examining either whether it interfered with the intelligibility, success or situational appropriateness of the language that was used”. (Jarvis and Pavlenko 2008, p. 25). These researchers go on to say that currently researchers are not so much influenced by the appropriateness of the expression used as by its resulting effects. More recently, a number of researchers have adopted the goal of accounting for the overall effects of CLI without regard for whether the outcome of specific instances of CLI is positive or negative. (Jarvis and Pavlenko 2008)

Then again, Hammarberg and Williams (Hammarberg 2001) as mentioned by Boratynska-Sumara (2015) affirm that an error may lead to success in communication:

“When dealing with transfer in production these authors represent a more recent approach and examine the effects of CLI without regard for whether the result is positive or negative taking

² Translated by autor.

into account that violating grammatical norms is not the only indicator of perceiving an instance of transfer as being negative. An error may be also the outcome of the mental inter-lingual process of the identification of similarities, which could reflect a highly developed meta-linguistic awareness and lead to success in communication when, although wrong or inappropriate, it is still comprehensible". Boratynska-Sumara (2015 pp. 137-148)

Lexical transfer is used in an attempt to communicate and even though it may be erroneous in form, it may very well result in successful communication; those speakers who make use of lexical transfer may be much more successful in their attempt to communicate than those who avoid using it and thus keep themselves from speaking their mind. Agustín Llach (2016a) concludes that those learners who transfer are good language learners. And they are because they try, because they make a very significant attempt to communicate and, in most cases, succeed. Jarvis (2009) agrees with the fact that speakers borrow lexical items when they encounter difficulties while speaking another language; this is so, and it is, for the sake of communication:

"It should also be acknowledged that besides learned Cross-linguistic associations and processing interference, lexical transfer can also occur in the form of intentional and strategic uses of language, such as when a person switches to another language or borrows a lexeme from one language due to difficulties encountered while using another". (Jarvis 2009, p. 103)

All these statements reveal an emerging current belief that negative lexical transfer is not so negative as it was originally thought. Negative lexical transfer is positive when it leads to successful communication and should be used as a tool to transmit thought, as a tool to express ideas and to reach others, those others who do not speak our L1 but to whom we can get and feel closer to by speaking our L2s as best we can, mainly, in an attempt to achieve successful communication.

2.7 Relevance for teaching

Using lexical transfer whether erroneous or correct, in both form and meaning should be encouraged as a learning strategy, a strategy that leads to communication, mainly successful communication. Learners who make use of lexical transfer are successful learners, learners

who will ultimately learn the L2 and achieve high levels of proficiency, higher levels than those who do not dare take linguistic risk in an attempt to communicate and prefer to remain silent and only speak when they are sure of the correctness of their speech. Therefore, teachers must encourage the use of lexical transfer in learners and make them aware that as they progress in their learning process they will be able to leave behind many of the transfers they once used.

Kellerman & Sharwood Smith (1986) agree on this last factor: “A learner’s proficiency level seems also to be a relevant factor in determining when transfer will occur”.

Agustín Llach (2016a) suggests that in the classroom we should:

- “Use of cognates and other facilitative similarities,
- Raise awareness of cognates and cross-linguistic similarities,
- Instruct about semantic and pragmatic restrictions of L1 false cognates (e.g. equip is not equipo/team)” (Agustín Llach 2016a, slide 22)

Ringbom (1987) believes in raising “the understanding of the language learning processes is therefore important also for language teaching methodology”. (Ringbom 1987, p. 139).

Chapter three

Methodology

¿Qué te parecen los candidatos a la presidencia de los EEUU? (Researcher)
*No me gustan **tampoco** de las opciones. (Participant 18)*

The main aim of this research is to prove that lexical transfers are basically positive as they have a positive effect over communication. Those known as positive lexical transfers, which are correct both in form and meaning, are obviously, per se, positive as they derive in correct expression. However, this research holds that those known as negative lexical transfers, which are erroneous in form, or in meaning are also positive as they, in most cases, have a positive effect over communication. With this in mind, this chapter presents the explanation of the methodology that has been followed to prove this hypothesis.

3.1.- Research Questions

The main questions of this research are:

- Are negative lexical transfers truly negative?
- Do they have a negative effect over communication?

Specifically, these research questions are explored through the case of USA speakers of L1-English learners of L2-Spanish.

The sub-questions are:

- Do USA speakers of L1-English learners of L2-Spanish make lexical transfers in their oral L2-Spanish speech?
- What lexical transfers do USA speakers of L1-English learners of L2-Spanish make in their oral L2-Spanish speech?
- Which type of lexical transfer is most common when USA speakers of L1-English learners of L2-Spanish express themselves orally in Spanish?
- Do Spanish speakers understand the negative lexical transfers produced by USA speakers of L1-English when speaking their L2-Spanish?

As a result of this last question, the research will establish:

- What number of negative lexical transfers have a positive effect over communication?
- What number of negative lexical transfers have a negative effect over communication?

In addition, as a result of my professional experience I have the hypothesis that more creative speakers are better communicators than those who are not, and believe that lexical creativity leads to a large use of *coinages*, while lack of lexical creativity derives in a greater use of *borrowings*. This research holds the belief that the more risk a speaker takes, the more creative he will be and will, therefore, use more *coinages of new word* and *coinages of new expression* and fewer *borrowings* than those speakers who take less risk and are, thus, less creative.

This study is therefore interested in knowing:

- Does lexical creativity imply that L2 learners detach themselves from their L1?
- What effect does lexical creativity have over communication?

3.2.- Main aim and specific aims of the present research paper

The main aim of the present research is to determine whether negative lexical transfers have a negative effect over communication, and consequently, whether the terminology used to define them is appropriate. For this purpose, we need to know if USA speakers of L1-English learners of L2-Spanish produce lexical transfers when speaking Spanish, what lexical transfers they make when speaking orally in their L2-Spanish, and find the number of such lexical transfers that are understood by L1-Spanish speakers.

Consequently, data will be collected through observation of the naturalistic language characterized by interactional discourse where participants speak on a variety of topics that were recorded from 20 USA speakers of L1-English learners of L2-Spanish when speaking Spanish. A success analysis as well as an EA will be carried out to identify both the positive and negative lexical transfers they make, they will then be classified, described and the results will be analyzed. Once this is completed, the negative lexical transfers will be presented to

L1-Spanish speakers to determine the number of negative lexical transfers they are able to understand. The results will enable reaching a conclusion on whether negative lexical transfers have a positive or negative effect over communication and whether the naming of these lexical transfers is appropriate.

The specific aims of this research are:

- Identify the lexical transfers that USA participants make;
- classify the lexical transfers that USA participants make;
- determine the number of negative lexical transfers that are understood by L1-Spanish speakers.

And additionally, as has been mentioned above, for matters of personal interest:

- Determine whether orally distancing from L1-English and developing a lexical imagination has a greater communicative effect than using L1-English terminology.

3.3.- Research design

This paper is a descriptive and qualitative empirical research.

The design of this research is observational, and exploratory by contrast because it intends, through an inductive process that enables the generation of hypothesis, to observe the linguistic phenomenon of lexical transfers in the oral speech of 20 USA participants, whose native tongue is English and are learners of Spanish as their only L2. This research is based on a careful observation followed by a detailed analysis of the oral speech of the mentioned 20 participants. The methodology of this study has been performed along three longitudinal stages of 20 days the first, 39 days the second – except for three interview recordings which were taken at later dates as a substitution of erroneous interviews for not being audible, or for the subjects being inheritance speakers –and 20 days the third. The two first were carried out to collect the recordings of the interviews made to the 20 USA speakers, and the last was carried out to obtain the feedback from the 20 SPs. The first stage was performed in the year 2012, the second stage was carried out in the year 2014, and the third was performed in the year 2015.

In the first and second stages, 10 recordings were taken from USA L1-English speakers learners of L2-Spanish speaking Spanish. They were in a three-month Spanish

immersion course in Spain and had completed two months. In the third stage, 20 SPs listened to the 20 recordings, which were stopped at each of the negative lexical transfers. Each Spanish participant (SP) was given a questionnaire³, which asked whether he understood each negative lexical transfer and what he had understood, with the aim of ensuring he, in fact, understood or did not understand each negative lexical transfer. The answer was given by circling the words “Yes” or “No” and by answering the question: “What did you understand?”.

In this research, a qualitative analysis of the data obtained in these three stages has been done by transcribing (this was done by the researcher so as to strengthen the identification process of the lexical transfers of both types), identifying, classifying, describing, and explaining the lexical transfers made by the 20 USA speakers in the two first stages, and by organizing and analyzing the answers given by the 20 SPs in the third stage. In addition, a quantitative analysis has been performed as a numerical analysis of the lexical behavior of participants with regards to the types of lexical transfers they have used has been carried out. This has been done when studying the data obtained and classifying the results.

3.4.- Intervention context, description of participants and sample choice.

The present research has been designed to study the lexical transfers used by 20 USA L1-English speakers-learners of L2-Spanish in their oral speech, to analyze both their negative and positive effect, and to conclude on whether these lexical transfers are understood or not by 20 L1-Spanish speakers.

The 40 participants – 20 USA English speakers and 20 Spanish speakers - were registered pupils of one of the following centers:

- The *Centro de Estudios Hispánicos* (CEHI) of the Universidad Antonio de Nebrija at the Campus located in Dehesa de la Villa, Madrid, Spain,
- the Philology School of the Universidad de Sevilla, which has an agreement with Sweet Briar University for USA students to complete the immersion course known

³ A Sample of the questionnaire is presented in this PhD paper as Appendix 1.

as *Sweet Briar University's Junior Year in Spain*. This School is located in Sevilla, Spain,

- and the Journalism School of the Universidad Francisco de Vitoria, located in Majadahonda, Madrid, Spain.

The 20 USA speakers who have taken part in this study are USA nationals of both sexes, of the ages of 20 and 21, speakers of L1-English learners of L2-Spanish. Eleven are females and nine are males. None of them speak any other L2. The 20 participants have an intermediate level of Spanish, level B2 of the *CEFR*. All participants were in a linguistic immersion situation in Spain, following a Spanish language immersion course for foreigners at Universidad Antonio de Nebrija in Madrid, participants 1-10 and 13-20, and Universidad de Sevilla in Sevilla, participants 11 and 12. Both immersion programs have a duration of 3 months and the fact of residing in Spain gives the participants the opportunity to speak the language outside the classroom. In both courses, the number of hours of class is 45, distributed in 2 weekly sessions of 1.30 hours each. These 20 USA participants who study at different USA universities were interviewed at the Campus de la Dehesa de la Villa in Madrid.

The 20 SPs are Journalism students in their first and third year of study, of the ages of 18 and 20, speakers of L1- Spanish. All of them have an intermediate level of English, level B2 of the *CEFR* – currently it is absolutely impossible to find L1-Spanish speakers of the same age as that of the USA participants who do not speak English, therefore I decided to accept SPs who had identical level of English to that of the Spanish learners. None of them speak any other L2. The 20 SPs did the understanding check at Universidad Francisco de Vitoria in Majadahonda, Madrid.

The 40 participants volunteered for this study, the L1-English speakers after having resided in Spain for two months. The sampling is non-probabilistic by convenience. Therefore, this research lacks external validity, that is, conclusions cannot be generalized beyond the sample studied in this paper. Nevertheless, this research has internal validity, meaning that the conclusions of this exploratory and investigatory paper will serve as the basis to create hypothesis concerning lexical transfers that have been used by this target group, and may be

proved in the future through quantitative papers that use representative samples with a larger number of participants.

3.5.- Description of variables

Product variable:

Oral production of the pupils of the CEHI at Universidad Antonio de Nebrija, the School of Philology at Universidad de Sevilla, and the School of Journalism at the Universidad Francisco de Vitoria.

Context variable:

L1: English

L1: Spanish

Possible intervening variable:

Sevilla/Madrid

This variable has not been taken into account as it is believed not to have any influence over the speakers' oral production.

3.6.- Data collection

This study is placed outside the classroom as it is there where the data has been collected. No language placement level test has been carried out as the language level determined by the CEHI and the Universidad de Sevilla have been considered accurate. The data collection, as mentioned above, consists of 20 spoken interviews. It is interesting to note that "Research based on spoken corpora is scarcer than that based on written corpora because the former are difficult to compile and work with for a number of reasons, such as the arduous job of data collection, the time consuming and complex transcriptions..." (Lang 2007, p. 3).

The collection of data has been done as follows:

3.6.1.-Interview recording:

A.- The ten last USA participants, that is number 11-20, were interviewed for an average time of 15 minutes each. The interviews were carried out in classrooms at the Dehesa de la Villa Campus of the Universidad Antonio de Nebrija, in Madrid, Spain in the year 2012. Each was an individual and closed interview and was recorded on an Olympus recording device, and later downloaded to the researcher's Personal Computer (PC), and burned onto a CD.

B.- The first ten USA interviews, that is number 1-10, lasted an average time of 40 minutes each. The interviews were carried out in the classrooms at the Dehesa de la Villa Campus of the Universidad Antonio de Nebrija, in Madrid, Spain in the year 2014. Each was an individual and closed interview and was recorded on an Olympus recording device, and was later downloaded to the researcher's PC, and burned onto a CD. These 10 recordings lasted longer, in fact, 25 minutes longer, as a result of my appreciation that speakers take an average of 10 minutes to relax and feel comfortable and therefore, proceeded with longer recordings in an attempt to obtain the most natural speech possible, which could lead to attaining more and higher quality data.

3.6.2.- Spanish speakers' check:

This data was collected through individual and closed tests that lasted an average of 40 minutes in classrooms at the School of Journalism of the Universidad Francisco de Vitoria in Majadahonda, Madrid, Spain. Each test was done by using one recorded interview, and a questionnaire that each SP was given to complete.

The interviews are composed of three sections:

- The first part consisted of a brief introduction in which the researcher explained to each USA participant that the interview would be used for a research paper and asked the speaker for a written authorization to use the recording. From this point on, the researcher started a conversation with the participant as a means to ease the first contact between the two and become slightly familiar with each other.
- The second part consisted of a proper interview, in which the researcher maintained a conversation with each participant. I will define this section as a conversation-interview, as it was the result of an attempt to ease the tension that was produced on each USA participant by his having to speak a L2 with a person he had never met before. This factor would result in the speakers' controlling their expression and that was precisely what I was trying to avoid, as I aimed at a natural speech that would derive in the greatest number of lexical transfers as possible. Thereby, in this section, questions concerned learning about the USA speaker's place of origin, the university where he studied, his academic, professional and personal interests, his reasons to learn Spanish, the opportunities speaking this language could bring in the future, his opinion about Spain and Spaniards. This section of the interview is essential to attain the data which is the basis of the linguistic analysis of this research.
- The third part of the interview consisted of:
 - In the case of interviews 11-20, the narration of a story told by each USA participant. The stories were based on 7 photographs⁴ that participants were given – all 10 participants were given the same 7 photographs- to organize as they saw best. Each participant took an average of one minute to organize the photos and begin to tell a story. The intention of this section was to make the speakers produce more complex linguistic discourse. However, the stories resulted in simple linguistic narrations.
 - In the case of interviews 1-10, the recounting of the feelings or ideas that came to the speaker's mind after having taken a look at a photograph. Each speaker was given 6 photographs⁵. The approach was changed as I realized the initial scheme did not result in a large variety of linguistic expressions and therefore, did not provide complex linguistic utterances. This approach proved to be effective as participants 1-10

⁴ These 7 photographs are presented as part of this PhD paper as Appendix 2.

⁵ These 6 photographs are presented as part of this PhD paper as Appendix 2.

expressed: memories, preferences, likes, feelings, wishes, assumptions, conclusions, opinions, descriptions, narrations, experiences, habits, in addition to, association of ideas, comparison, contrast, surprise, clarification of facts and thus, went beyond simple narrations of events. Each participant took a matter of seconds to start talking about his impressions of each photograph.

Therefore, the corpus that has been collected and later analyzed contains different types of data which consists of conversations, interviews, picture stories, narratives, and expression of feelings.

The Spanish speakers' check questionnaire was as follows:

In each test, each SP was given a questionnaire with numbered questions, which represented each negative lexical transfer. Next to each number lay the question "Do you understand?" followed by the options "Yes" and "No", which the Spanish speaker was told to circle to answer. Below these two options lay a second question, for each negative lexical transfer, "What do you understand?" followed by a blank space in which the SP was asked to write an answer. Each SP listened to one USA speaker recording. The check started once the procedure was explained and the researcher was sure the participant understood what had to be done. The researcher then played the recording and stopped at each point where the USA speaker had used a negative lexical transfer, the SP would then be given time to answer the two questions before proceeding with the next negative lexical transfer.

3.7.- Type of analysis

So as to analyze the USA participants' speech, I have transcribed each recording following the standards proposed by Val.Es.Co⁶ transcription system. The main focus of the transcriptions has been set on the lexical transfers, thus, the sections of the interviews that have been found lexically irrelevant have been left out. These transcriptions have enabled an easier analysis of, mainly, the positive lexical transfers in each of the participants' speeches

⁶ The Val.Es.Co. transcription system is presented in this PhD paper as Appendix 3.

and have, all in all, led to a detailed study of the lexis used by each speaker, revealing the lexical transfers that have led to lexical success and those which have derived in error. Lexical error has been deemed to be any deviation of the lexical norm which appears in dictionaries and grammar studies. In the case of Spanish, the lexical norm is determined by the *Diccionario de la Real Academia Española de la Lengua*.

An identification process of the Spanish lexical terms that were correct and that seemed to have been transferred from the speakers' L1 into their L2 has been carried out. They have then been classified and explained. In addition, an EA of each of the 20 interviews following the procedure for Error Analysis spelled out in Corder (1974), as referred to in Ellis (1985) has been performed. It is as follows. (1) *A corpus is selected.* (2) *The errors in the corpus are identified.* (3) *The errors are classified.* (4) *The errors are explained.* The corpus of the interviews made to the USA participants has, therefore, been selected. The lexical items that were erroneous in L2 and that seemed to have been transferred from the speakers' L1 to their L2 have been identified. The errors have been classified and explained in a qualitative analysis of the lexical transfers used by all 20 USA participants. A quantitative analysis of the positive lexical transfer results and also the negative lexical transfer results has been performed.

Thereafter, a Spanish speakers' check has been carried out to prove whether the negative lexical transfers used by each one of the USA speakers was properly understood. This action was done in an attempt to know if the negative lexical transfers used by the 20 participants truly have a negative effect over communication or whether, on the contrary, they too, contribute to communication. The results of the 20 Spanish speakers have been analyzed and a qualitative analysis has been performed followed by a quantitative study of such results.

Chapter Four

Analysis

*No he visto **papel de arena** en nuestro apartamento.* (Participant 9)

In this chapter the positive and then negative lexical transfers that have been identified in the 20 USA participants' oral speech will be presented, followed by an analysis of the negative lexical transfers that have and have not been understood by the Spanish speakers that have taken part in this study. An account of the positive lexical transfers that have been found will be presented in the first place. In this account, each positive lexical transfer will be classified and explained in depth, and a reference to the origin of each one of them will be made. This account is followed by a table (Table 1) that allows the reader to access each and everyone of the positive lexical transfers easily. In the second section of this chapter, the negative lexical transfers that have been identified in the 20 USA participants' oral speech will be presented, they will be classified and individually explained; in addition to offering a reference to the origin of each one of them. This analysis of the negative lexical transfers is followed by a table (Table 2) of the same characteristics as that of the positive lexical transfers as it gives a very good general picture of the findings and facilitates the reading. In the final section of this chapter, the results of the Spanish speakers' check will be offered, in it an analysis of each of the negative lexical transfers that have been understood, those that have not been understood, and those which were thought to have been understood but were not will be offered. All are presented in Table 3 to Table 22. This analysis is also followed by two tables, Table 23 shows the negative lexical transfers that have been understood, and Table 24 shows those which have not been understood or were mistakenly thought to have been understood.

4.1- Lexical transfers

This research project will take the classification proposed by Jarvis (2009) as a model to classify the lexical transfers made by the twenty participants, whose speeches have been recorded and transcribed. This classification distinguishes between Lexemic and Lemmatic transfer.

Lexemic transfer (Jarvis 2009, pp. 106-112) refers to transfer of form and includes:

1. The use of *deceptive or false cognates*, such as: *Many offers of violence have not enough courage to speak about it*, reflecting influence from Swedish *offer* = “victim” (Ringbom, 1987).
2. *Unintentional language switches*, also called *borrowings*, involving the use of words from the wrong language, such as: *and then nog one* = “and then another one”, reflecting an accidental switch into Dutch (Poulisse, 1999. p. 148).
3. *Coinages of new words*, also known as *lexical inventions*, by blending the formal properties of words from different languages; such as: *We have the same clothers*, reflecting a blend of the English word *clothes* and the Swedish word *kläder*=clothes (Ringbom, 1987, p. 153).

Lematic transfer (Jarvis 2009, pp. 112- 118) refers to transfer of meaning and it includes:

1. *Semantic extensions*. Such as when a speaker extends the meaning of the word *spin* in the Finnish-like manner: *the cat climbs beside man and lies down as near to man as possible starting to spin* (pro *purr*; Fi. *kehrä ta*= ‘spin;purr’). The Finnish verb *kehrä tá* is polysemous in the sense that it is linked to two separate concepts: the concepts for spinning and purring. A plausible interpretation of what led to this error is that when learning the word *spin*, the learner who produced this error carried over the full set of semantic links.
2. *Calques*, which involve simple compound words that are transferred (or directly translated) from one language to another, such as *youngman* (for *bachelor*, from Swedish *ungkarl* = lit. ‘young man’ (Ringbom, 2001, p. 64) and *animaldoctor* for *veterinarian*, from Finnish *eläinlääkäri* = lit. ‘animal doctor’ (Meriläinen, 2006, p. 91).
3. *Collocational transfer* involves words that conventionally co-occur. For instance, when a speaker says ‘*There is also people who wants to get married, do children and build a nice house; for have children*, from Finnish *tehdä lapsia* = lit. ‘do/make children’. There is more to the story, however, and if we recognize phrasal verbs (e.g. *let down*, *put off*) as lexical collocations, then one additional, intriguing finding emerges, which is that learners whose L1s lack phrasal verbs tend to avoid using phrasal verbs in the L2, opting instead for one-word equivalents. Whereas, learners whose L1s do *have* phrasal verbs do not show the same aversion to using them in the L2 except in particular cases, such as when L2 phrasal verbs seem too L1-like.

4. *Subcategorization transfer* (Jarvis2009, p. 117-119) involves syntactic errors that concern an adjective or a verb and object (*nominal* or prepositional sentence); speakers generally choose the wrong object; that is, the speaker uses a prepositional object instead of a nominal object (*she kissed with him*, instead of *she kissed him*) or (*she was thinking his mother* instead of *she was thinking about his mother*).

Twenty transcripts of the audio recordings made to participants in the project have been performed and the findings will now be analyzed, on the one hand, the positive lexical transfers; and secondly the negative lexical transfers. A full analysis of such lexical transfers can be seen below.

4.1.1- Positive lexical transfer

As has been mentioned previously in this paper positive transfer occurs whenever the L1 or any other L2 that a speaker knows contribute to communication by providing a facilitating effect, the latter not being the case in this research as none of the participants spoke any other language other than English and Spanish. In the case of positive lexical transfer the effect is caused on the lexical level when the lexical items of a speaker's L1 causes a positive effect by facilitating the speaker's expression regarding lexical items. In this study the language that is the source of influence is the participants' L1, English, that spoken by North American speakers when speaking their L2, Spanish.

4.1.1.1- Participant 1 (P₁)

(Hereon, all participants will be referred to as P followed by their correlative number). Each lexical transfer will consist of two figures, the first of which will be that given to the participant and the second, the number of lexical transfer made by that participant.

P₁

+1.1.- ...pero ellos estudian español *para traducir*.

The speaker has mistaken the *to*, belonging to the infinitive of the English verb *translate* – *they study Spanish to translate* – with a preposition and has, therefore, translated it into Spanish for the preposition *para*, thus making a *collocational transfer*, which in this case, is right.

+1.2.- ...*porque un barrio tiene 90% y otro **casi nadie***.

The combination of words *casi nadie* is the result of a *collocational transfer* of the English words that conventionally co-occur, *almost nobody*.

+1.3.- ...***tal vez** 30%...*

*Quince, veinte **tal vez***.

...*que **tal vez**, en Suecia*.

***Tal vez**, enfrente de una fábrica*.

The use of *tal vez* in these sentences is a *calque* of the English word: *maybe 30%; fifteen, twenty maybe; maybe in Sweden; Maybe, opposite a factory*.

+1.4.- *Entonces quiero **hablar con** ellos en su lengua materna*.

The words *hablar con* are a *collocational transfer* of the English combination of words that commonly co-occur, *talk with*.

+1.5.- *Entonces quiero hablar con ellos **en su lengua materna***.

The words, *en su lengua materna* is a *calque* of the English: *in their L1*.

+1.6.- ***No puede ser activo** en la vida del estudiante...*

The sentence: *No puede ser activo* is a *calque* of the English sentence: *Can't be active*.

+1.7.- *En la **misma manera** que...*

The words *misma manera* are the result of a *collocational transfer* of the English words that conventionally co-occur, *same way*.

+1.8.- ...*no me **rodea** como aquí*.

The speaker has made a *calque* of the English verb *surround*, as in: *it doesn't surround me as it does here*.

+1.9.- ...*porque tenemos un **relación buena***.

The words *relación buena* are the result of a *collocational transfer* of the English words that frequently co-occur, *good relationship*.

+1.10.- *Y si ellos preparan una comida que no me gusta, no **sé cómo** actuar*.

The combination of words *sé cómo* is a *collocational transfer* of the English words that conventionally co-occur, *know + how + verb*.

+1.11.- ...*necesito hablar en español **mucho, mucho más***.

The repetition of the intensifier *mucho* preceding the quantifier *más* is a *collocational transfer* of the same English collocation of words, *much much more*.

+1.13.- *Estamos hablando de publicidad y otras cosas **más difícil que**...*

The use of the comparative form *más + adjective (difícil) + que* is the result of a *collocational transfer* of the English comparative collocation, *more + adjective (difficult) + than (conjunction)*.

+1.14.- ***Para** bañarlos...*

The speaker has mistaken the *to*, belonging to the infinitive of the English verb *bathe*, as in *to bathe them*, with a preposition and has, therefore, translated it into Spanish for the preposition *para*, thus making a *collocational transfer*, which in this case, is right.

+1.15.- *Reza y es **muy personal***.

The words *muy personal* is a *calque* of the English terms *very personal*, as in: *it is very personal*.

+1.16.- *Es **muy humano***.

The words *muy humano* is a *calque* of the English terms *very human*, as in: *it is very human*.

+1.17.- *Es difícil para explicar en **cualquier** lengua.*

The use of *cualquier lengua* is a calque of the English word *any* used in affirmative sentences, which means: *it doesn't matter which* (language, in this case).

+1.18.- ***Un milagro**, y eso es muy triste.*

The words, *un milagro*, are a *calque* of the English terms, *a miracle*.

+1.19.- *Un milagro, y **eso es muy triste**.*

Eso es muy triste is a sentence which is a *calque* of the English sentence: *That is very sad*.

+1.20.- *...los peregrinos **sabe que** no van a recibir...*

*...pero **saben que** no es...*

Sabe que is the result of a *collocational transfer* of the English co-occurrence of words: *know that*.

+1.21.- *...más cerca de Dios, o **cualquier** (que)cosa.*

The use of *cualquier cosa* is a calque of the English word *any* used in affirmative sentences, which means: *it doesn't matter which/what* (thing/what, in this case).

+1.22.- *...con cosas **inmateriales**, intangibles.*

The word *inmateriales* is a *cognate* of the English word *immaterial*.

+1.23.- *...con cosas inmateriales, **intangibles**.*

The word *intangibles* is a *cognate* of the English word *intangible*.

+1.24.- ***Si no pueden creer un milagro tal vez es possible** ...*

This sentence is the result of a *calque* of the English sentence: *If they can't believe a miracle may be possible*. The curious fact is that the speaker has translated *may be* for *tal vez*, and although it is not the best option in Spanish, it is understandable. The truth is that the expression *tal vez* is unnecessary as the adjective *possible* includes the idea of *possibility*. In English, it is used to emphasize the idea of possibility, in Spanish it is unnecessary.

+1.25.- *Si no pueden creer un milagro tal vez es possible, **no tienen nada**.*

No tienen nada is the result of a *calque* of the English sentence: *they have nothing*.

+1.26.- *Y si no quieren una **esperanza falsa**.*

Esperanza falsa is a *calque* of the English words *false hope*, as in: *if they don't want a false hope*.

+1.27.- ...y me dije **¿Por qué no?**

The question, *¿Por qué no?*, is a *collocational transfer* of the English combination of words that co-occur when a speaker is asking such a question *Why not?*

+1.28.- *Y **toda la familia** le gusta los Mets ahora.*

The words *toda la familia* is a *calque* of the English terms: *all the family...*

+1.29.- *Y por eso recuerdo el año que **recibí mi perro**...*

The words *recibí mi perro* are a *calque* of the English sentence: *I got my dog*.

+1.30.- ...y cuando abro el cajones **era muy mágico**.

Era (muy) mágico is the result of a *calque* of the English sentence: *it was magic*.

+1.31.- *Creo que es **40% porque** crecí ahí.*

This expression is a *calque* of the very common use, in English, of percentages to express how much an individual has/like/believes something.

4.1.1.2.- Participant 2 (P₂)

+2.1.- *Porque mi especialidad es Relaciones Públicas y solo una **jefe potencial**...*

The participant has made a *collocational transfer* by using the English terms that conventionally co-occur, *potential boss*, in Spanish. The term *potencial* does exist in Spanish but it would not be naturally joined to the term *jefe*, we would use *posible jefe* instead. The

Spanish term *potencial* is more frequently used to refer to an individual's capacity (As defined by the DRAE: que tiene o encierra en sí potencia), rather than to an existing possibility (As defined by the DRAE: que puede suceder o existir, en contraposición de lo que existe), as it has been used in this context. However, the use is acceptable and understandable though it would not be a native speaker's first choice.

+2.2.- ...y segundo, es **la segunda más hablada** lengua en los Estados Unidos.

La segunda más hablada lengua is a *calque* of the English text, *the second most spoken language*. The speaker has translated it literally and has even maintained the English order of words. In Spanish, the order is inappropriate, but it is understandable. The correct order is: *la segunda lengua más hablada*.

+2.3.- ...**con mis experiencias** ...

Con mis experiencias is a *calque* of the English text, *with my experience*. The participant has translated the text literally into Spanish, and for some unknown reason has used the plural, when he would not have used it in English.

+2.4.- ...y **él es pagado** muy muy bien.

The use of this passive form of the verb *pagado* is the result of a *calque* of the English passive sentence, *he is paid*. This type of passive is grammatically correct but rarely used when speaking Spanish. However, it is the most common way of expressing this idea in English.

+2.5.- *Mis amigos no **están seguros económicamente**.*

This sentence is a *calque* of the English sentence: *are not financially stable*.

+2.6.- *Los inmigrantes, ellos **hacen el trabajo** que nadie quiere hacer.*

This sentence is a *collocational transfer* of the English combination of words that frequently co-occur: *do the work*.

+2.7.- *Los inmigrantes, ellos hacen el trabajo que **nadie quiere hacer**.*

nadie quiere hacer is a *calque* of the English sentence: *nobody wants to do*.

+2.8.- ...*el presidente **necesita parecer** como él está haciendo algo.*

The words *necesita parecer* are a *calque* of the English sentence, *needs to appear*.

+2.9.- *Podemos votar nuestros líderes, y **nada más**.*

Y *nada más* is a *collocational transfer* of the English collocation of words: (and) *nothing else*.

+2.10.- *He estado en Méjico, las buenas partes, nunca he estado en las **partes malas**.*

Just as in the previous sentence the words *partes malas* are a *calque* of the English: *bad parts*. In this case, the gender of the elements is coordinated.

+2.11.- *Es en contra de la **sueña americana**.*

The words *sueña americana* are a *collocational transfer* of the words that conventionally co-occur in English: *American dream*. The speaker has used the terms in feminine, when they are actually masculine, he should have said: *el sueño americano*, but still it is understandable.

+2.12.- *La **lucha entre** industria y agricultura.*

*La **lucha entre** progreso y... No sé el opuesto de progreso ¿Desprogreso?*

These words are a *collocational transfer* of the words that commonly co-occur in English: *fight between*.

+2.13.- *Yo **creo que** una sala de relajar...*

*Yo **creo que** es algo mal a mí.*

***Creo que** es viejo.*

*Yo **creo que** la persona que dueña la bicicleta.*

*Yo **creo que** es la segunda más rápido deporte.*

The words, *creo que*, are the result of a *collocational transfer* of the English words that conventionally co-occur, *think that*.

+2.14.- ...es para seguir trabajando y**mejorar productividad**.

The speaker has made a *collocational transfer* of the English words that frequently co-occur: *improve productivity*.

4.1.1.3.- Participant 3 (P₃)

+3.1 ...hay **un sección de la ciudad** de los judíos...

These words are the result of *acalque* of the English sentence: *there is a section of the city*.

+3.2.- ...dos, **más o menos**, en Praga...

*He vivido en Minnesota por dieciséis años **más o menos**...*

Más o menos is a *collocational transfer* of the words that conventionally co-occur in English, *more or less*, and coincidentally, can be translated into Spanish as they also co-occur.

+3.3.- Puedo escuchar muchas lenguas, es muy **diversa**.

Diversa is a *cognate* of the English word *diverse*, both words are almost identical in form and identical in meaning.

+3.4.- ...viviría en un apartamento con **otras personas**.

*Las personas de **otros países**...*

*...las **otras culturas**...*

*...en **otros lugares**...*

The combinations of words, *otras personas*, *otros países*, *otras culturas* and *otros lugares*, are right in Spanish, in contrast with what many speakers – including this participant - have said: *un otra persona*. In the present cases, as the nouns are plural the speaker has not made the mistake of using the indefinite article ‘*un*’ before the adjective ‘*otro*’, and has used a plural adjective, *otras*, which coordinates properly with the plural nouns, *personas*, *países*, *culturas*

and *lugares*. The participant has made four *collocational transfers* that are equivalent in Spanish.

+3.5.- ... y quiero **practicar mi español**.

These words are a *calque* of the English sentence ‘(I want) to practice my Spanish’.

+3.6.- *Y fue diferente cuando llegué aquí.*

This sentence is a *calque* of the English: ‘It was different when I got here’.

+3.7.- ...y **algunas veces**, personas dicen que es más fácil que francés...

Algunas veces is a *collocational transfer* of the English words that conventionally co-occur: *some + times = sometimes*(adv.).

+3.8.- ...y algunas veces, personas **dicen que** es más fácil que francés...

The collocation *dicen que* is the result of a *collocational transfer* of the English verb *say + that*. The combination of words is equivalent in both languages.

+3.9.- ...y algunas veces, personas dicen que es **más fácil que** francés...

Once again, the speaker has maintained a combination of words that commonly co-occur in English to form the comparative form of adjectives: *comparative adjective + than* (conjunction). The collocation happens to be identical in Spanish. Consequently, this is a *collocational transfer*.

+3.10.- **A veces**, si una persona llame por teléfono.

A veces is a *collocational transfer* of the English words that conventionally co-occur: *some + times = sometimes*(adv.).

+3.11.- **A veces, si una persona llame** por teléfono.

These words are the result of a *calque* of the English conditional sentence introduction: *if + subject + verb*. In Spanish the construction is identical.

+3.12.- Sí, **hay mucha gente como** los estudiantes de China...

The speaker has made a *calque* of the English sentence: *there are many people like the Chinese students*.

+3.13.- *Y las personas que **viajan a** los Estados Unidos están en las mismas clases de nosotros*.

The combination of words, *viajan a*, is a *collocational transfer* of the English words that commonly co-occur, *travel to*. This collocation is equivalent in both languages.

+3.14.- *Y las personas que viajan a los Estados Unidos **están en las mismas clases de** nosotros*.

Están en las mismas clases is a *calque* of the English sentence: *are in the same classes...*

+3.15.- *...tenemos los vidas muy **similares***.

The term *similares* is a *cognate* of the English word, *similar*. The only difference being that the form differs, as in Spanish adjectives have plural forms while in English they do not. Otherwise, form and meaning are identical.

+3.16.- *Es una película de animales que viajan al zoológico y **durante su viaje**...*

The combination of words, *durante su viaje*, is a *collocational transfer* of the words that conventionally co-occur in English *during* + (*adj.*) + *noun*. When followed by a noun the use of *during* and *durante* coincide in both languages.

4.1.1.4.- Participant 4 (P4)

+4.1.-*Tienen **problemmas con** sus recursos naturales...*

The sentence, *tienen problemmas con*, is a *collocational transfer* of the English combination of words *have problems with*. In this case, both languages maintain the same collocation.

+4.2.-*Tienen **problemmas con sus recursos naturales**...*

The combination of words *recursos naturales*, is a *collocational transfer* of the English combination of words *natural resources*. In this case, both languages maintain the same collocation.

+4.3.-*Espero que como un trabajador.*

This sentence is a *calque* of the English sentence: *I hope that as (a worker)*. In this case the literal translation of all the terms is appropriate in Spanish.

+4.4.-*Sí, muy **energético**.*

The term *energético* is a *cognate* of the English term *energetic*. The two words are almost identical in form and have the same meaning.

+4.5.-*Pasar el tiempo.*

The combination of words, *pasar el tiempo*, is a *collocational transfer* of the English words that commonly co-occur, *spend time*.

4.1.1.5.- Participant 5 (Ps)

+5.1.- ...*me **encanta conocer** nueva gente.*

The words, *encanta conocer*, is a *calque* of the English sentence: *love to meet*. The structure is the same in both languages present simple of verb + infinitive.

+5.2.- ...***la gente** que, **con quien** estoy.*

The speaker has made a *collocational transfer* of the English combination of words: *people with whom (I am)*. The same words coincidentally co-occur in both languages.

+5.3.-*Y tengo un **hermano adoptivo**.*

The participant has made a *collocational transfer* of the English words, *adopted brother*, which are terms that conventionally co-occur both in English and Spanish.

+5.4.- ...*mis padres dicen que yo soy **más negro** que él.*

The participant has maintained a combination of words that commonly co-occur in English to form the comparative form of adjectives: *comparative adjective + than (conjunction)*. The collocation happens to be identical in Spanish. Consequently, this is a *collocational transfer*.

+5.5.-Pero, **es que** él es diferente.

...también **es que** somos genuínos.

Pero, **es que**, la primera vez que...

The words, *es que*, are a *collocational transfer* of the English combination of words: *It's (just) that*. This collocation is identical in both languages.

+5.6.-Y eso es **triste para mí**.

The speaker has made a *collocational transfer* of the English words that conventionally co-occur: *sad for*. This collocation is identical in both languages.

+5.7.- ...también es que somos **genuínos**.

La gente del Medio Oeste es más **genuíno**, más auténtico, más original.

The word, *genuínos*, is a *cognate* of the English word, *genuine*. Both words are almost identical in form and have the same meaning.

+5.8.- La gente del Medio Oeste es más genuíno, más **auténtico**, más original.

The terms *auténtico* and *authentic* are *cognates*, as they are almost identical in form and have the same meaning.

+5.9.- La gente del Medio Oeste es más genuíno, más auténtico, más **original**.

The Spanish term, *original*, and also the English word, *original*, are *cognates* as they are identical both in form and meaning.

+5.10.- La gente del **Medio Oeste** es más genuíno, más auténtico, más original.

This is an example of a *collocational transfer* that coincides in both languages, yet, in Spanish this combination of words means nothing unless it is accompanied by the location or area it

is referring to, so although the combination is correct it is lacking: de los Estados Unidos (of the United States).

+5.11.-*Él tiene buenas historias.*

This sentence is a *calque* of the English sentence: *He has good stories.*

+5.12.- ...*la última vez que* he ido a un...

The words, *última vez que*, are a *collocational transfer* of the English: *the last time that*. This combination of words co-occurs in both languages.

+5.13.-Y tienes *tu propia* cerveza.

The words, *tu propia* + *sustantivo (cerveza)*, is a *collocational transfer* of the English terms: *your own* + *noun (beer)*. The two collocations coincide in both languages.

+5.14.-...*pero quiero ser como* un europeo aquí.

The words, *ser como*, are a *collocational transfer* of the English words that conventionally co-occur: *be like*. The two collocations coincide in both languages.

4.1.1.6.- Participant 6 (P6)

+6.1.- *Ahora es mejor, pero este invierno tiene, tenían temperaturas...*

The words *ahora es mejor, pero* are a *calque* of the English words: *Now it's better, but...* The participant has translated the English terms into Spanish.

+6.2.-*Ahora es mejor, pero este invierno tiene, tenían temperaturas...*

The term, *temperaturas*, is a *cognate* of the English, *temperatures*. The words are almost identical in form and identical in meaning.

+6.3.- *Mi trabajo era, no sé cómo se dice ¿Infantry?*

The words, *sé cómo*, are a *collocational transfer* of the English combination of words that conventionally co-occur *know + how + verb*. Both languages maintain the same collocation.

+6.4.- ...*para el presidente y también otros dignatarios*.

Mi computadora yo compro del internet, y otras cosas.

The combinations of words, *otros dignatarios* and *otras cosas*, are right in Spanish, in contrast with what many speakers have said: *un otra persona*. In the present cases, as the nouns are plural the speaker has not made the mistake of using the indefinite article 'un' before the adjective 'otro', and has used plural adjectives, *otro/otras*, which coordinate properly with the plural nouns, *dignatario* and *cosas*. The participant has made two *collocational transfers* and coincidentally the combination of words is equivalent in Spanish.

+6.5.- ...*para el presidente y también otros dignatarios*.

The Spanish word, *dignatarios*, is a *cognate* of the English term *dignitaries*. The two words are almost identical in form and have the same meaning.

+6.6.- *La inauguración de Barak Obama, el primero inauguración*.

The Spanish word, *inauguración*, is a *cognate of* the English term, *inauguration*. The two words are almost identical in form and have the same meaning.

+6.7.-*La inauguración de Barak Obama, el primero inauguración*.

The combination of words, *primero inauguración*, is a *collocational transfer* of the combination of words, *first inauguration (of Barak Obama)*, which commonly co-occur in English when speaking about the first commencement of a President's (Barak Obama, in this case) term in office. The collocation is identical in both languages, and although the speaker has mistaken the genre of the ordinal adjective, *primero*, the meaning is properly transmitted.

+6.8.-*Pero un mes después...*

The terms, *un mes después*, is a *collocational transfer* of the English combination of words: *expression of time + later (adverb)*. The collocations are identical in both languages.

+6.9.-El hizo un chistoso sobre la, el **incidente**.

The Spanish word, *incidente*, is a *cognate* of the English term, *incident*. The two words are almost identical in form and have the same meaning.

+6.10.- También la lengua es **un poco difícil** para funcionar.

The words, *un poco difícil*, are a *collocational transfer* of the English words that conventionally co-occur, *a little + adjective (difficult)*. Both languages have the same collocation.

+6.11.- No sé si quiero completer o **continuar con** la contabilidad.

The terms, *continuar con*, are a *collocational transfer* of the English words that conventionally co-occur: *continue with*. Both languages have the same collocation.

+6.12.-Un **factoría**...

The speaker has used a *cognate* of the English word, *factory*. *Factoría* and *factory* are almost identical in form and have the same meaning.

+6.13.- En general **mis rodillas** no son muy buenas.

The words, *mis rodillas*, are a *collocational transfer* of the English terms that commonly co-occur, *possessive adjective + noun defining a part of the body*. This collocation is not frequent in Spanish, however, in this case it is appropriate.

+6.14.-Es **muy aburrido**.

This sentence is a *calque* of the English sentence: *It is very boring*. The literal translation of this phrase is appropriate in Spanish.

+6.15.- Y **muchas de las personas** que dicen...

The speaker has made a *collocational transfer* of the English combination of words that conventionally co-occur: *many of the + noun*. As we can see, this collocation is identical in Spanish.

+6.15.- *Para mí, no es un razón para gustar un equipo.*

The participant has made a *calque* of the English sentence: *For me, it is not a reason to...* The literal translation of this sentence is appropriate in Spanish. The only mistake the speaker has made is to use the indefinite article ‘*un*’ in masculine rather than feminine, as the noun ‘*razón*’ is feminine.

+6.16.- *No es suficiente para mí.*

The participant has made a *calque* of the English sentence: *It is not enough for me.* The literal translation of this sentence is appropriate in Spanish too.

+6.17.- *Mi computadora yo compro del internet y otras cosas.*

The term, *computadora*, is a *cognate* of the English word, *computer*. The two words are very similar in form and identical in meaning. This word, *computadora*, is commonly used in Latin America yet, not that much in Spain where we use *ordenador* instead.

+6.18.- *Mi computadora yo compro del internet y otras cosas.*

The term *internet* is a *cognate* and also an accepted *borrowing* as the word was originally taken from English.

+6.19.- *He visto Amazon de España y no tiene nada en comparación de Amazon en Los Estados Unidos.*

...es muy fácil en comparación al mundo real.

The words, *en comparación*, are a *collocational transfer* of the English words that conventionally co-occur: *in comparison*. The two languages coincide in this collocation.

+6.20.- *...antes de fuí a Puerto Rico hace dos años...*

The words, *hace dos años*, are a *calque* of the English words: *two years ago*.

+6.21.- *No es necesario una cosa mala siempre.*

This whole sentence is a *calque* of the English sentence: *It is not necessarily something bad all the time*. The mistake the speaker has made is to use the adjective, *necesario*, instead of the adverb, *necesariamente*. The rest of the translation is right.

+6.22.- **Más o menos**, porque con la internet...

Más o menos is a *collocational transfer* of the words that conventionally co-occur in English, *more or less*, and coincidentally, can be translated into Spanish as they also co-occur.

+6.23.- He experimentado **el mundo real**.

...es muy fácil en comparación al **mundo real**.

The words, *el mundo real*, are a *collocational transfer* of the English words that co-occur: *real world*. The two languages coincide in this collocation.

+6.24.- Mis amigos dicen: '**No puedo hacer toda la tarea**'. Y para mí es un chiste.

The whole sentence, *no puedo hacer toda la tarea*, is a *calque* of the English sentence: *I can't do all the homework*. The words used in both languages are the same and also have the same order.

+6.25.- Mis amigos dicen: '*no puedo hacer toda la tarea*'. Y **para mí es un chiste**.

The whole sentence, *para mí es un chiste*, is a *calque* of the English sentence: *for me it's a joke*. The words used in both languages are the same and also follow the same order.

+6.26.- ¿**Por qué no**? Algo divertido.

The question, *¿Por qué no?* is a *collocational transfer* of the same English question, *Why not?* This interrogative collocation coincides in both languages.

+6.27.- No he **hecho muchos amigos** aquí.

The Spanish collocation, *hacer amigos*, represented in this sentence by '*he hecho muchos amigos*', is identical in English: *make friends – have made many friends*. Both languages maintain the same combination of words. Consequently, this is a *collocational transfer*.

+6.28.- ...conocí a un **hombre de África** y en cinco minutos eramos mejores amigos.

The English collocation, *somebody from somewhere – a man from Africa* -, is identical in Spanish ‘*alguien de algún lugar*’ – *un hombre de África*. Therefore, the speaker has made a *collocational transfer* that is equivalent in both languages.

+6.29.- ...conocí a un hombre de África y en cinco minutos eramos **mejores amigos**.

The terms “*mejores amigos*” is a *collocational transfer* of the words that frequently co-occur in English “*best friends*”. The collocation coincides in both languages.

+6.30.- *Pero es muy fácil aquí porque necesitas personas para...*

The sentence, *es muy fácil aquí porque necesitas personas...*, is a *calque* of the same English sentence ‘*It’s easy here because you need people...*’

4.1.1.7.- Participant 7 (P7)

+7.1.- *El tiempo es **más o menos** frío.*

Más o menos is a *collocational transfer* of the words that conventionally co-occur in English, *more or less*, and coincidentally, can be translated into Spanish as they also co-occur.

+7.2.- *Mis padres **viven en** la costa.*

The verb *vivir* followed by the preposition ‘*en*’ is a *collocational transfer* of the same English construction: verb *live* + *on* (*the coast*).

+7.3.- ***Mi impresión** es un país muy bonito.*

This sentence is a *calque* of the same English sentence: *My impression is...*

+7.4.- ***Pero no tengo un plan para el futuro.***

This sentence is a *calque* of the same English sentence: *But I don’t have a plan for the future.*

+7.5.- ...*estoy frustrada cuando comito errores.*

This sentence is a *calque* of the English sentence: *I'm frustrated when I commit mistakes*. The speaker has made a mistake in the form of the verb, *cometer*, she should have said, *cometo*, rather than, *comito*. However, the sentence is perfectly understandable.

+7.6.- *Necesita mejorar en **el otro idioma***.

The combination of words: definite article '*el*' + adjective '*otro*' + noun, used to talk about a definite "other", is a *collocational transfer* of the same words that conventionally co-occur in English: *the other language* (talking about a specific language).

+7.7.- *Y **mi otra clase** en español es la conversación*.

The combination of words: *mi otra (clase)*, is a *collocational transfer* of the English combination of words: possessive adjective + other + noun. When the adjective *other* is preceded by a possessive adjective the collocation is identical in both languages. The possessive adjective, *mi*, simplifies the choice of the adjective '*otro*', it keeps the speaker from using the indefinite article '*un*' – as in '*un (otro)*'.

+7.8.- ***Me gusta correr pero en** cortas distancias*.

This sentence is a *calque* of the English sentence: *I like to run but in (short distances)*. The speaker has made the mistake of placing the adjective before the noun, as is done in English, while in Spanish, the adjective goes after the noun.

+7.9.- *Las personas están **frustradas con** el gobierno*.

*La gente son muy **frustrados con** el gobierno*.

The words, *frustradas con*, are a *collocational transfer* of the English words that conventionally co-occur: *frustrated with*.

+7.10.- *La situación es mala, o es **así así***.

The expression, *así así*, is a *collocational transfer* of the English expression: *so so*. Both languages use the repetitive technique to say that something or someone is mediocre.

+7.11.- *Mirar baseball no es **interesante para** mí*.

The words, *interesante para* (+ objeto indirecto), are a *collocational transfer* of the English words that frequently co-occur: *interesting for* (+ indirect object).

+7.12.- *Es un **pieza de arte**.*

The words *pieza de arte* are a *collocational transfer* of the English words '*piece of art*'. Both languages admit the combinations: *piece + of + art/pieza + de + arte*, as well as, *work + of + art/obra + de + arte*.

+7.13.-***Tienen lugares como este.***

This sentence is a *calque* of the English sentence: *They have places like this*.

4.1.1.8.- Participant 8 (P₈)

+8.1.- *Quiero **trabajar con** niños con deshabilitades.*

The words *trabajar con* are a *collocational transfer* of the English words that conventionally co-occur: *work with*. Both languages coincide in this collocation.

+8.2.-***Pero ambos son muy frío.***

These words are a *calque* of the English sentence: *But both are very (cold)*. The speaker has made the mistake of using a singular adjective when, in Spanish, adjectives have singular, plural, masculine and feminine forms, unlike English.

+8.3.- *Pero **a veces** una persona conoce que no soy español.*

A veces is a *collocational transfer* of the English words that conventionally co-occur: *some + times = sometimes*(adv.).

+8.4.- *No, **me gusta mi espacio**.*

These words are a *calque* of the English sentence: *I like my space*.

+8.5.-***Es sobre Franco.***

The speaker has made a *collocational transfer* of the English words: *It's about (somebody)*. Both languages have such construction, which is used to say what/who a story talks about.

+8.6.- ***Y podría caminar a todos los lugares.***

This sentence is a *calque* of the English phrase: *I could walk everywhere.*

+8.7.- ***Y es similar a mi biblioteca en mi escuela.***

These words are a *collocational transfer* of the words that conventionally co-occur in English, *similar to*.

4.1.1.9.- Participant 9 (P9)

+9.1.- ***Fue el principio de mi interés de España y de español.***

These words are a *calque* of the English sentence '*Was the beginning of my interest*'.

+9.2.- ***En mi universidad estudiaba la Historia y, específicamente, estudiaba la Historia de España.***

This sentence is a *calque* of the English phrase: *At my university I studied History and, specifically, I studied the History of Spain.*

+9.3.- ***El siglo más interesante para mí es el siglo XX.***

The words, *más interesante para mí*, are a *collocational transfer* of the English comparative form of adjectives: *more + adjective* followed by the preposition *for + indirect object*.

+9.4.- ***...y, específicamente, estudiaba la Historia de España.***

...y, específicamente, la Guerra Civil.

The adverb *específicamente* is a *cognate* of the English adverb, *specifically*. Both terms are similar in form and identical in meaning.

+9.5.- ***Las tragedias de la Guerra Civil son interesantes para mí.***

This whole sentence is the result of a *calque* of the English phrase: *The tragedies of the Civil War are interesting for me.*

+9.6.- No **entendía cómo** un país tan grande y tan importante que España...

These words are a *collocational transfer* of the words that conventionally co-occur in English: *understand how + subject + verb*. This collocation is identical in both languages.

+9.7.- No entendía cómo un país **tan grande** y **tan importante** que España...

The combination of words: *tan grande* and *tan importante* are *collocational transfers* of the words that commonly co-occur: *so/tan + adjective*. Both languages maintain this same collocation.

+9.8.-No tenía un **impacto** importante en la Guerra Mundia 2.

The word *impacto* is a *cognate* of the English noun *impact*. Both words are almost identical in form and have the same meaning.

+9.9.-...**porque es muy importante para Los Estados Unidos.**

This whole sentence is the result of a *calque* of the English phrase: *...because it is very important for The United States.*

+9.10.- **Pero en Los Estados Unidos no es normal que no mencionan España.**

This whole sentence is the result of a *calque* of the English phrase: *But in The United States it is not normal that they don't mention Spain.*

+9.11.- ...y sabía un poco de la **régimen de Franco.**

These words are a *calque* of the English terms *Franco's regime*.

+9.12.- ...y sabía un poco de la **régimen** de Franco.

The term *régimen* is a *cognate* of the English word *regime*.

+9.13.-...y **todavía no entiendo.**

This sentence is a *calque* of the English phrase: *and I still don't understand.*

+9.14.- *Y **quería regresar a** España.*

This sentence is a *calque* of the English phrase: *And I wanted to return to Spain.*

+9.15.- *Y hoy en día **tengo la oportunidad.***

This sentence is a *calque* of the English phrase: *I have the opportunity.*

+9.16.- *Me gusta más una vida **un poco más simple.***

...para ganar **un poco más dinero.**

These sentences are *calques* of the English phrases: ...*a bit simpler* and *a bit more money.*

+9.17.- *España **tiene demasiado pescado para mí.***

This sentence is a *calque* of the English phrase: *Spain has too much fish for me.*

+9.18.- *El pescado aquí es **más fresco que** en Los Estados Unidos.*

The participant has maintained a combination of words that commonly co-occur in English to form the comparative form of adjectives: *comparative adjective + than (conjunction)*. The collocation happens to be identical in Spanish. Therefore, he has made a *collocational transfer*.

+9.19.- ...*hasta finales del **año académico.***

The speaker has made a *collocational transfer* of the words that conventionally co-occur in English: *Academic year.*

+9.20.- ...*y no son **rivales.***

The word *rivales* is a *cognate* of the English term *rivals*. The form of the two words is almost identical and the meaning is the same.

+9.21.- *Pero estoy **refiriendo** más sobre su personalidad.*

The term *refiriendo* is a *cognate* of the English word *referring*. They are very similar in form and identical in meaning.

+9.22.- *Pero tengo que **cultivar un hábito**.*

The speaker has made a *collocational transfer* by using the words, *cutivar un hábito*. In English, we can say *to cultivate a habit*; these words naturally co-occur in both languages.

+9.23.- *Pienso **que vamos a tener** limpiar mucho.*

The participant has made a *calque* of the English sentence: *We are going to have to...*

+9.24.- *Tengo **aspiraciones** de aprender cocinar más.*

The Spanish word *aspiraciones* is a *cognate* of the English term *aspirations*. Both words are almos identical in form and both mean: a strong desire to achieve something high or great (Merriam Webster).

+9.25.- *Pero **hay mucha gente afuera de mi apartamento**.*

This whole sentence is a *calque* of the English phrase: *There's a lot of people outside my apartment.*

+9.26.- *Tengo que montar el tren, las cercanías, al trabajo **cada día**.*

These two words are a *collocational transfer* of the English terms that conventionally co-occur, *each/every day*.

+9.27.- *Entonces no pienso que voy a comprarla y es **mejor para** mis ejercicios...*

The speaker has made a *collocational transfer* of the English comparative adjective *better* + preposition *for*. The collocation is identical in both languages.

+9.28.-*Entonces, **no pienso que voy a comprarla**.*

This whole sentence is a *calque* of the English phrase: *Then, I don't think I'm going to buy it.*

+9.29.- *Pienso **que para los aviones personales**.*

The words *pienso que* are a *collocational transfer* of the English words that conventionally co-occur: *think that*.

4.1.1.10.- Participant 10 (P₁₀)

+10.1.- El **proyecto** es **sobre** la Filosofía.

The words *proyecto sobre* are a *collocational transfer* of the English words that conventionally co-occur: *project about*. The two languages coincide in this collocation.

+10.2.-Es muy **breve**.

The term *breve* is a *cognate* of the English term *brief*. The two words are similar in form and identical in meaning.

+10.3.-**La Filosofía no te da respuestas**.

This whole sentence is a *calque* of the English phrase: *Philosophy does not give you answers*.

+10.4.-**No me acuerdo el nombre del instituto**.

This sentence is a *calque* of the English phrase: *I can't remember the name of the institute*.

+10.5.-...**pero podría ser fácil**.

This phrase is a *calque* of the English sentence: *but it could be easy*.

+10.6.-Es fácil para **memorizar** todo.

The term *memorizar* is a *cognate* of the English word *memorize*. Both are almost identical in form and have the same meaning.

+10.7.- Los empleados de esta oficina **en particular**.

The words *en particular* are a *collocational transfer* of the English terms that commonly co-occur: *in particular*.

+10.8.-Sí, ¿**Por qué no**?

This question is a *collocational transfer* of the same question in English: *Why not?* These two words conventionally co-occur in both languages, in fact, in Spanish it is three words rather than two.

+10.9.- *El dinero a mí es importante, pero no **lo más importante**.*

The words *lo más importante* are a *collocational transfer* of the English co-occurrence of words that are used to form the superlative of adjectives: *the + most + adjective*. The collocation is identical in both languages.

+10.10.- ***En mi experiencia** no.*

These words are a *calque* of the English terms: *In my experience*.

4.1.1.11.- Participant 11 (P₁₁)

+11.1.- *Es una **ventaja** en los EEUU ahora, aprender y saber español.*

...y por eso es una **ventaja**...

The term *ventaja* is a *cognate* of the English noun *advantage*. The form is very similar (except for the prefix ad-) and the meaning identical.

+11.2.- ***Es importante**, que podemos servir...*

This sentence is a *calque* of the English: *It is important*.

+11.3.- *La **influencia** americana es...*

The word *influencia* is a *cognate* of the English term *influence*. Both words are almost identical in form and have the same meaning.

+11.4.- ...y solamente un **representante** no quieres...

The terms *representant* and *representante* are *cognates* as they are almost identical in form and have the same meaning.

4.1.1.12.- Participant 12 (P₁₂)

+12.1.- *Porque en los EEUU es **necesario** hablar español.*

The speaker has made a *calque* of the English sentence: *It is necessary.*

+12.2.- *Hablar español es **muy bueno** para encontrar trabajo...*

The participant has made a *calque* of the English sentence: *is very good*, as in: *Speaking Spanish is very good to find a job.*

+12.3.-...*muchos niños **que no tienen mucho** y por eso hay muchas enfermedades...*

The participant has made a *calque* of the English sentence *(Many children) that don't have much*. The terms can be literally translated and end in success as the two languages coincide in this case.

+12.4.-...*muchos niños que no tienen mucho y **por eso** hay muchas enfermedades...*

The words, *y por eso*, are the result of a *collocational transfer* of the English words: *and that's why*. The collocations are identical in both languages.

+12.5.- ...*muchas oportunidades como trabajar en el Congreso y **muchas cosas que**, antes, **no puede hacer**.*

This sentence is the result of a *calque* of the English sentence: *many things that he couldn't do*. The speaker has made a mistake in the verbal form, *puede*, as he should have used the tense known as, preterito perfecto simple: *pude*. However, the use of an inappropriate verbal tense does not interfere with meaning.

+12.6.- ...*muchas **oportunidades** como trabajar en el Congreso y muchas cosas que, antes, **no puede hacer**.*

The word *oportunidades* is a *cognate* of the English term *opportunities*.

+12.7.-*Él **representa una cultura muy diferente...***

The speaker has made a *calque* of the English sentence: *He represents a different culture.*

+12.8.- ***Este hombre tiene cultura pero no tiene muchas apartunidades.***

The participant has made a *calque* of the English sentence: *This man has culture, but does not have many opportunities.*

4.1.1.13.- Participant 13 (P₁₃)

+13.1.-...en un programa de ***¿inmersión?***

The words *immersion/inmersión* are cognates. They are almost identical in form and have the same meaning.

+13.2.- ...era buena ***oportunidad*** para continuar...

The term *oportunidad* is a cognate of the English word *opportunity*. They are almost identical in form and have the same meaning.

+13.3.- ...y para ***comunicar con ciertos tipos de personas...***

The participant has made a *calque* of the English sentence: *and to communicate with certain types of persons.*

+13.4.- ***Es muy bonita y limpia, y las personas son muy simpáticos.***

The whole sentence is a *calque* of the English phrase: *It is lovely and clean and people are very nice.*

+13.5.- ...yo ***quiero hacer más amigos españoles...***

The whole sentence is a *calque* of the English phrase: *I want to make more Spanish friends.*

+13.6.- ...***pero ellos no tienen interés...***

The whole sentence is a *calque* of the English phrase: *but they have no interest.*

+13.7.- ***Sí, pero eso no me suena bien...***

The whole sentence is a *calque* of the English phrase: *but that doesn't sound right*.

+13.8.- ...***pienso en cómo*** *conjugar mis verbos más...*

The combination of words *pensar en + cómo + verbare* a *collocational transfer* of the English words that commonly co-occur, *think in/about +how + verb*. Consequently, the participant has made a *collocational transfer*.

+13.9.-***Yo quiero corregirlo en ese momento para que yo ...***

The whole sentence is a *calque* of the English phrase: *I want to correct it in that moment so that I...*

+13.10.-...***entonces perdí tiempo***.

These two words are a *collocational transfer* of the English terms that commonly co-occur: *waste time*.

+13.11.- ...***donaron dinero para hacer un edificio para que ellos...***

The whole sentence is a *calque* of the English phrase: *they donated money to make a building so that they...*

+13.12.-...***graduaron ...***

The term *graduaron* is a *cognate* of the English word: *graduated*. Both are very similar in form and have the same meaning.

4.1.1.14.- Participant 14 (P14)

+14.1.-...***mi madre es enfermera y, entonces, Tejas necesitó enfermeras hace muchos años...***

The speaker has made a *calque* of the English sentence: *my mother was a nurse and then, Texas needed nurses many years ago...*

+14.2.- *Hace tres semanas mis padres fueron a Escocia...*

The participant has made a *calque* of the English sentence: *Three weeks ago my parents went to Scotland...*

+14.3.- *...para visitar a mi familia.*

The whole sentence is a *calque* of the English phrase: *To visit my family.*

4.1.1.15.- Participant 15 (P₁₅)

+15.1.- *Mi español es así, así...*

The expression, *así así*, is a *collocational transfer* of the English expression: *so so*. Both languages use the repetitive technique to say that something or someone is mediocre.

+15.2.- *Mi español está mejorando...*

Mi español hablado está mejorando...

The speaker has made two *calques* of two very similar English sentences: *My Spanish is improving*, and *My spoken Spanish is improving*.

+15.3.- *...no tengo tiempo para pensar en si yo...*

The speaker has made a *calque* of the English sentence: *I don't have time to think in whether I...*

+15.4.- *...ella habla español siempre y ella fue mi inspiración...*

The speaker has made a *calque* of the English sentence: *...she always speaks Spanish and she was my inspiration...*

+15.5.- *...ella habla español siempre y ella fue mi inspiración...*

The word *inspiración* is a *cognate* of the English term *inspiration*.

+15.6.- *...ella es mi vecino.*

The speaker has made a *calque* of the English sentence: *she is my neighbor*.

+15.7.-....**donaban**...

The term *donaban* is the Pretérito Perfecto of the Spanish verb *donar*, which corresponds in English to the Past Simple – *donated*. Both verbs, *donar* and *donate*, are *cognates* as they are very similar in form and have the same meaning.

4.1.1.16.- Participant 16 (P₁₆)

+16.1.- *Es muy **diferente de** dónde yo vivo....*

The combination of words *diferente de* is a *collocational transfer* of the English words that conventionally co-occur *different + from* – *Merriam Webster Dictionary* states: the adjective *different* is often followed by *from*, *than*, or chiefly British *to*.

+16.2.- *Hay **más gente, más parques, más que hacer**...*

Más + noun is a *collocational transfer* of the English combination of words: *more + noun* (*more people, more parks*). Both languages maintain the same collocation.

+16.3.-*Siempre tiene la TV en el canal, **pero no sé cuál**...*

The speaker has made a *calque* of the English sentence: *but I don't know which...*

4.1.1.17.- Participant 17 (P₁₇)

+17.1.- *Soy **la más joven**...*

The words *lo más importante* are a *collocational transfer* of the English co-occurrence of words that are used to form the superlative of adjectives: *the + most + adjective*. The collocation is identical in both languages.

+17.2.-....**un poquito nerviosa**.

The words, *un poquito nerviosa*, are a *collocational transfer* of the English words that conventionally co-occur, *a little (bit) + adjective (nervous)*. Both languages have the same collocation.

+17.3.- ...*pero no estoy segura, es **tan grande**...*

...***tan bonito** que España.*

...*estoy **tan joven**.*

The combination of words: *tan grande*, *tan bonito* and *tan joven* are *collocational transfers* of the words that commonly co-occur: *so/tan + adjective*. Both languages maintain this same collocation.

+17.4.- ...*es **difícil estudiar** cuando estamos en un...*

The combination of words: *adjective (difícil) + verb in infinitive* is a *collocational transfer* of the English words that commonly co-occur: *adjective (difficult) + verb in infinitive (to study)*.

+17.5.- *Y nunca voy a estar aquí **en la misma situación**.*

This combination of words: *en + la misma + noun* is a *collocational transfer* of the same terms that commonly co-occur in English: *in + the same + noun – in the same situation*.

+17.6.- ***Me gustaría aprovechar** que puedo...*

This sentence is a *calque* of the English phrase: *I would like to take advantage...*

+17.7.- *Y estudiar toda el tiempo haciendo oraciones, ensayos, **presentaciones**.*

The word *presentaciones* is a *cognate* of the English term *presentations*. Both words are almost identical in form and have the same meaning.

+17.8.- *Tenemos que hacer clases de Ciencias y...teatro, y **otras cosas**.*

The combinations of words, *otras cosas* is right in Spanish, in contrast with what many speakers have said: *un otra (persona)*. In the present case, as the noun is plural the speaker has not made the mistake of using the indefinite article ‘*un*’ before the adjective ‘*otro*’, and

has used a plural adjective, *otras*, which coordinates properly with the plural noun, *cosas*. The participant has made a *collocational transfer* that are equivalent in Spanish.

+17.9.- Y **aprendí** mucho **sobre** el baile.

The words *aprendí sobre* are a *collocational transfer* of the terms that conventionally co-occur in English: *learn about*.

+17.10.-...**decisiones sobre** el plan medico.

The words *decisiones sobre* are a *collocational transfer* of the terms that conventionally co-occur in English: *decisions about*.

4.1.1.18.- Participant 18 (P₁₈)

+18.1.-Sí, **es raro**.

This sentence is a *calque* of the English phrase: *It's strange*.

+18.2.-...**es una opción**.

The terms *opción* and *option* are *cognates*, as both are very similar in form and have the same meaning.

+18.3.-...**quizás**.

The word *quizás* is a *calque* of the English term *maybe*.

+18.4.- Creo que **disfrutaría** **trabajando** con los estudiantes de la universidad...

The verb *disfrutar* + *verb in gerund* is a *collocational transfer* of the English *verb enjoy* + *verb in gerund*. This combination conventionally co-occurs in English as well as in Spanish.

+18.5.- ...los dos **representan** cosas diferentes.

The speaker has used a *cognate* of the English verb *represent* by using the Spanish verb *representar*.

+18.6.- *La economía es **más importante que** las cosas sociales.*

The use of the comparative form *más+ adjective (importante) + que* is the result of a *collocational transfer* of the English comparative collocation, *more + adjective (important) + than (conjunction)*.

+18.7.-*La huelga es **efectivo**...*

The word *efectivo* is a *cognate* of the English noun *effective*.

4.1.1.19.- Participant 19 (P19)

+19.1.- *Estoy aprendiendo **mucho más que**...*

Mucho más que is the result of a *collocational transfer*. Its origin is the English common co-occurrence of words *much more than*. The two languages have the same collocation.

+19.2.-***Como vivir** en un país distinto.*

Cómo vivir is a *collocational transfer* of the *particle how + verb in infinitive*. Both languages have the same collocation.

+19.3.-*...me encantó y quería **continuar estudiando**.*

The words *continuar estudiando* – verb *continuar* + gerund - are a *collocational transfer* of the English words that conventionally co-occur: verb ‘continue’+ gerund. Both languages have the same collocation.

+19.4.-*Hay **muchas más reglas**.*

Muchas más + plural noun is the result of a *collocational transfer*. Its origin is the English common co-occurrence of words *many more + plural noun*. The two languages have the same collocation.

+19.5.- *Mi padre trabaja mucho y no tiene tiempo libre para viajar.*

This whole sentence is a *calque* of the English phrase: *My father works a lot and does not have free time to travel.*

+19.6.-**Computadora**

The term *computadora* is a *cognate* of the English word *computer*. It is in fact, more common in Central and South America than it is in Spain, but it is used here too.

+19.7.-...*querían dar fondos*...

The word *fondos* is a *cognate* of the English term *funds*. Both words have a very similar form and the same meaning.

+19.8.-*Y con el dinero que la escuela recibió...*

This whole sentence is a *calque* of the English phrase: *And with the money the school got...*

+19.9.- *Pero un día algo terrible sucedió.*

This phrase is a *calque* of the English sentence: One day something terrible happened.

4.1.1.20.- Participant 20 (P₂₀)

+20.1.- ...*contacto con los profesores*...

The words *contacto con* are a *collocational transfer* of the terms that conventionally co-occur in English *contact with*. The two languages have the same collocation.

+20.2.- *Solo necesito tres clases más para especializar en español.*

These terms are a *collocational transfer* of the words that conventionally co-occur in English: *numeral adjective (three) + more + noun*. In Spanish, however, the order is slightly altered as the adjective *más* is placed after the noun.

+20.3.-...*me gusta mucho la naturaleza*...

This sentence is a *calque* of the English phrase: *I like nature very much*. The only difference being that the noun is placed after the verb in English and after the adjective in Spanish.

+20.4.- ...*les gusta esta **forma de vida***.

Forma de vida is a *collocational transfer* of the words that commonly co-occur in the speaker's L1: *way of life*.

+20.5.- ...*la gente que viven aquí quieren sus **recursos naturales***...

Recursos naturales is a *collocational transfer* of the English words that conventionally co-occur: *natural resources*.

+20.6.- ...*en las universidades todavía aprender estoy y, ah, buscar por la **causa de la violencia***.

Causa de la violencia is a *collocational transfer* of the English words that conventionally co-occur: *cause of violence*.

POSITIVE LEXICAL TRANSFER

| LEXEMIC | LEMATIC | |
|--|---|---|
| Cognate | Calque | Collocational transfer |
| Con cosas inmateriales , intangibles (+1.22) | Tal vez 30% (+1.3) | Pero ellos estudian español para traducir (+1.1) |
| Con cosas inmateriales, intangibles (+1.23) | ...quince, veinte tal vez (+1.3) | Porque un barrio tiene casi 90% y otro casi nadie (+1.2) |
| Puedo escuchar muchas lenguas, es muy diversa (+3.3) | Que tal vez , en Suecia (+1.3) | Entonces quiero hablar con ellos en su lengua materna (+1.4) |
| Tenemos las vidas muy similares (+3.5) | Tal vez , enfrente de una fábrica (+1.3) | Entonces quiero hablar con ellos en su lengua materna (+1.5) |
| Sí, muy energético (+4.4) | No puede ser activo en la vida del estudiante (+1.6) | En la misma manera que... (+1.7) |
| También es que somos genuinos (+5.7) | No me rodea como aquí (+1.8) | Porque tenemos un buena relación (+1.9) |
| La gente del Medio Oeste es más genuino , más auténtico, más original (+5.7) | Reza y es muy personal (+1.15) | Y si ellos preparan una comida que no me gusta no sé cómo actuar (+1.10) |
| La gente del Medio Oeste es más genuino, más auténtico , más original (+5.8) | Es muy humano (+1.16) | Necesito hablar en español mucho, mucho más (+1.11) |
| La gente del Medio Oeste es más genuino, más auténtico, más original (+5.9) | Es difícil para explicar en cualquier lengua (+1.17) | Estamos hablando de publicidad y otras cosas más difícil que (+1.13) |
| Ahora es mejor, pero este invierno tiene, tenía temperaturas (+6.2) | Un milagro , y eso es muy triste (+1.18) | Para bañarlos (+1.14) |
| ...para el presidente y también otros dignatarios (+6.5) | Un milagro, y eso es muy triste (+1.19) | Los peregrinos sabe que no van a recibir (+1.20) |
| La inauguración de Barak Obama, el primero inauguración (+6.6) | Más cerca de Dios o cualquier (que) cosa (+1.21) | Pero saben que no es... (+1.20) |
| Él hizo un chistoso sobre la, el incidente (+6.9) | Si no pueden creer un milagro tal vez es posible (+1.24) | Y me dije ¿Por qué no? (+1.27) |
| Un factoría (+6.12) | Si no pueden creer un milagro tal vez es posible, no tienen nada (+1.25) | Porque mi especialidad es Relaciones Públicas y sólo una jefe potencial (+2.1) |
| Mi computadora yo compro del internet y otras cosas. (+6.17) | Y si no quieren una esperanza falsa (+1.26) | Los inmigrantes, ellos hacen el trabajo que nadie quiere hacer (+2.6) |
| Mi computadora yo compro del internet y otras cosas (+6.18) | Y toda la familia le gusta los Mets ahora (+1.28) | Podemos votar nuestros líderes, y nada más (+2.9) |
| En mi universidad estudiaba la Historia y, específicamente , estudiaba la Historia de España (+9.4) | Y por eso recuerdo el año que recibí mi perro (+1.29) | Es en contra de la sueña americana (+2.11) |

POSITIVE LEXICAL TRANSFER

| LEXEMIC | LEMATIC | |
|---|---|---|
| Cognate | Calque | Collocational transfer |
| Y, específicamente , la Guerra Civil (+9.4) | Y cuando abro el cajones era muy mágico (+1.30) | La lucha entre industria y agricultura (+2.12) |
| No tenía un impacto tan importante en la Guerra Mundial 2 (+9.8) | Creo que es 40% porque crecí ahí (+1.31) | La lucha entre progreso y...No sé lo opuesto de progreso ¿Desprogreso? (+2.12) |
| ...y sabía un poco de la régimen de Franco (+9.12) | Y segundo, es la segunda más hablada lengua en los EEUU (+2.2) | Yo creo que una sala de relajar (+2.13) |
| ...y no son rivales (+9.20) | ... con mis experiencias (+2.3) | Yo creo que es algo mal a mí. (+2.13) |
| ...pero estoy refiriendo más sobre su personalidad (+9.21) | Y él es pagado muy muy bien (+2.4) | Creo que es viejo (+2.13) |
| Tengo aspiraciones de aprender cocinar más (+9.24) | Mis amigos no están seguros económicamente (+2.5) | Yo creo que la persona que dueña la bicicleta (+2.13) |
| Es muy breve (+10.2) | Los inmigrantes, ellos hacen el trabajo que nadie quiere hacer (+2.7) | Yo creo que es la segunda más rápido deporte (+2.13) |
| Es fácil para memorizar todo (+10.6) | El presidente necesita parecer como él está haciendo algo. (+2.8) | Es para seguir trabajando y mejorar productividad (+2.14) |
| Es una ventaja ahora en los EEUU aprender y saber español (+11.1) | He estado en Méjico, los buenas partes, nunca he estado en los partes malas .(+2.10) | ...dos, más o menos , en Praga (+3.2) |
| ...y por eso es una ventaja (+11.1) | Hay una sección de la ciudad de los judíos (+3.1) | He vivido en Minnesota por dieciséis años más o menos (+3.2) |
| La influencia americana es... (+11.3) | ...y quiero practicar mi español (+3.5) | ...viviría en un apartamento con otras personas (+3.4) |
| ...y solamente un representante no quieres (+11.4) | ...y fue diferente cuando llegué aquí (+3.6) | Las personas de otros países (+3.4) |
| ...muchas oportunidades para trabajar en El Congreso y muchas cosas que, antes, no puede hacer (+12.6) | A veces, si una persona llame por teléfono (+3.11) | ...las otras culturas (+3.4) |
| Es un programa de ¿ inmersión ? (+13.1) | Sí, hay mucha gente como los estudiantes de China (+3.12) | ...en otros lugares (+3.4) |
| Era buena oportunidad para continuar (+13.2) | Y las personas que viajan a los Estados Unidos están en las mismas clases de nosotros. (+3.14) | ...y algunas veces , personas dicen que es más fácil que francés (+3.7) |
| ... graduaron ...(+13.12) | Espero que como un trabajador (+4.3) | ...y algunas veces, personas dicen que es más fácil que francés (+3.8) |
| ...ella habla español siempre y ella fue mi inspiración (+15.5) | Me encanta conocer mucha gente (+5.1) | ...y algunas veces, personas dicen que es más fácil que francés (+3.9) |
| ... donaban ...(+15.7) | Él tiene buenas historias(+5.11) | A veces , si una persona llame por teléfono...(+3.10) |

POSITIVE LEXICAL TRANSFER

| LEXEMIC | LEMATIC | |
|--|--|--|
| Cognate | Calque | Collocational transfer |
| ... el tiempo haciendo oraciones, ensayos, presentaciones (+17.7) | Ahora es mejor, pero este invierno tiene, tenía temperaturas (+6.1) | Y las personas que viajan a los Estados Unidos están en las mismas clases de nosotros (+3.13) |
| Es una opción (+18.2) | Es muy aburrido (+6.14) | Es una película de animales que viajan al zoológico y durante su viaje (+3.16) |
| ...los dos representan cosas diferentes. (+18.5) | Para mí no es un razón para gustar un equipo (+6.15) | Tienen problemmas con sus recursos naturales (+4.1) |
| La huelga es efectivo (+18.7) | No es suficiente para mí. (+6.16) | Tienen problemmas con sus recursos naturales (+4.2) |
| Computadora (+19.6) | Antes de fui a Puerto Rico hace dos años (+6.20) | Pasar el tiempo (+4.5) |
| ...querían dar fondos (+19.7) | No es necesario una cosa mala siempre (+6.21) | La gente que, con quien estoy (+5.2) |
| | Mis amigos dicen: “ No puedo hacer toda la tarea ”. Y para mí es un chiste (+6.24) | Y tengo un hermano adoptivo (+5.3) |
| | Mis amigos dicen: “ No puedo hacer toda la tarea ”. Y para mí es un chiste (+6.25) | Mis padres dicen que yo soy más negro que él (+5.4) |
| | Pero es muy fácil aquí porque necesitas personas para... (+6.30) | Pero, es que él es diferente (+5.5) |
| | Mi impresión es un país muy bonito (+7.3) | También es que somos genuinos (+5.5) |
| | Pero no tengo un plan para el futuro (+7.4) | Pero es que la primera vez que (+5.5) |
| | ...estoy frustrada cuando comito errores (+7.5) | Y eso es triste para mí (+5.6) |
| | Me gusta correr pero en cortas distancias (+7.8) | La gente del Medio Oeste es más genuino (+5.10) |
| | Tienen lugares como este (+7.13) | La última vezque he ido a un... (+5.12) |
| | Pero ambos son muy frío (+8.2) | ...y tú tienes tu propia cerveza (+5.13) |
| | No, me gusta mi espacio (+8.4) | Pero quiero ser como un europeo aquí (+5.14) |
| | Y podría caminar a todos los lugares (+8.6) | Mi trabajo era, no sé cómo se dice ¿Infantry? (+6.3) |
| | Fue el principio de mi interés de España y de español (+9.1) | ...para el presidente y también otros dignatarios (+6.4) |
| | En mi universidad estudiaba la Historia y, específicamente, estudiaba la Historia de España(+9.2) | Mi computadora yo compro del internet, y otras cosas (+6.4) |
| | Las tragedias de la Guerra Civil son interesantes para mí (+9.5) | La inauguración de Barak Obama, el primero inauguración (+6.7) |

POSITIVE LEXICAL TRANSFER

| LEXEMIC | LEMATIC | |
|---------|---|---|
| Cognate | Calque | Collocational transfer |
| | ...porque es muy importante para los Estados Unidos(+9.9) | Por un mes después (+6.8) |
| | Pero en los Estados Unidos no es normal que no mencionan España (+9.10) | También la lengua es un poco difícil para funcionar (+6.10) |
| | ...y sabía un poco de la régimen de Franco. (+9.11) | No sé si quiero completar o continuar con la contabilidad (+6.11) |
| | ...y todavía no entiendo (+9.13) | En general mis rodillas no son muy fuertes (+6.13) |
| | ...y quería regresar a España (+9.14) | Y muchas de las personas que dicen (+6.15) |
| | ...y hoy en día tengo la oportunidad (+9.15) | He visto Amazon de España y no tiene nada en comparación de Amazon en Estados Unidos (+6.19) |
| | Me gusta una vida un poco más simple (+9.16) | Es muy fácil en comparación al mundo real (+6.19) |
| | ...para ganar un poco más dinero (+9.16) | Más o menos , porque con la internet (+6.22) |
| | España tiene demasiado pescado para mí (+9.17) | Ha experimentado el mundo real (+6.23) |
| | Pienso que vamos a tener limpiar mucho (+9.23) | Es muy fácil en comparación al mundo real (+6.23) |
| | Pero hay mucha gente afuera de mi apartamento (+9.25) | ¿ Por qué no? Algo divertido (+6.26) |
| | Entonces no pienso que voy a comprarla... (+9.28) | No he hecho muchos amigos aquí (+6.27) |
| | La Filosofía no te da respuestas. (+10.3) | Conocí a un hombre de África y en cinco minutos... (+6.28) |
| | No me acuerdo el nombre del instituto (+10.4) | Conocí a un hombre de África y en cinco minutos éramos mejores amigos (+6.29) |
| | Pero podría ser fácil. (+10.5) | El tiempo es más o menos frío (+7.1) |
| | En mi experiencia no (+10.10) | Mis padres viven en la costa (+7.2) |
| | Es importante que podemos servir (+11.2) | Necesito mejorar en el otro idioma (+7.6) |
| | Porque en los EEUU es necesario hablar español (+12.1) | Y mi otra clase en español es la conversación (+7.7) |
| | Hablar español es muy bueno para encontrar trabajo (+12.2) | Las personas están frustradas con el gobierno (+7.9) |
| | ...muchos niños queno tienen mucho y por eso hay muchas enfermedades (+12.3) | La gente son muy frustradas con el gobierno (+7.9) |

POSITIVE LEXICAL TRANSFER

| LEXEMIC | LEMATIC | |
|---------|---|--|
| Cognate | Calque | Collocational transfer |
| | ...muchas oportunidades para trabajar en El Congreso y muchas cosas que, antes, no puede hacer (+12.5) | La situación es mala o es así así (+7.10) |
| | Él representa una cultura muy diferente (+12.7) | Mirar baseball no es interesante para mí (+7.11) |
| | Este hombre tiene cultura pero no tiene muchas apartunidades (+12.8) | Es un pieza de arte (+7.12) |
| | ...y para comunicar con ciertos tipos de personas (+13.3) | Quiero trabajar con niños con deshabilitades (+8.1) |
| | Es muy bonita y limpia, y las personas son muy simpáticos (+13.4) | Pero a veces una persona conoce que no soy español (+8.3) |
| | ...yo quiero hacer más amigos españoles (+13.5) | Es sobre Franco (+8.5) |
| | ...pero ellos no tienen interés (+13.6) | Y es similar a mi biblioteca en mi escuela (+8.7) |
| | Sí, pero eso no me suena bien (+13.7) | El siglo más interesante para mí es el siglo XX (+9.3) |
| | Yo quiero corregirlo en ese momento para... (+13.9) | No entendía como un país tan grande y tan... (+9.6) |
| | ...donaron dinero para hacer un edificio para ellos (+13.11) | No entendía como un país tan grande y tan importante que España...(+9.7) |
| | ...mi madre es enfermera y, entonces, Tejas necesitó enfermeras hace muchos años (+14.1) | El pescado aquí es más fresco que en los Estados Unidos (+9.18) |
| | Hace tres semanas fueron a Escocia... (+14.2) | ...hasta finales del año académico (+9.19) |
| | ...para visitar a mi familia (+14.3) | ...pero tengo que cultivar un hábito (+9.22) |
| | Mi español está mejorando (+15.2) | Tengo que montar el tren, las cercanías, al trabajo cada día (+9.26) |
| | Mi español hablado está mejorando (+15.2) | Entonces no pienso que voy a comprarla y es mejor para mis ejercicios (+9.27) |
| | ...no tengo tiempo para pensar en si yo... (+15.3) | Pienso que para los aviones personales (+9.29) |
| | ...ella habla español siempre y ella fue mi inspiración (+15.4) | El proyecto es sobre la Filosofía (+10.1) |
| | ...ella es mi vecino (+15.6) | Los empleados de esta oficina en particular (+10.7) |
| | Siempre tiene la TV en el canal, pero no sé cuál (+16.3) | Sí ¿Por qué no? (+10.8) |
| | Me gustaría aprovechar que puedo... (+17.6) | El dinero a mí es importante pero no lo más importante (+10.9) |

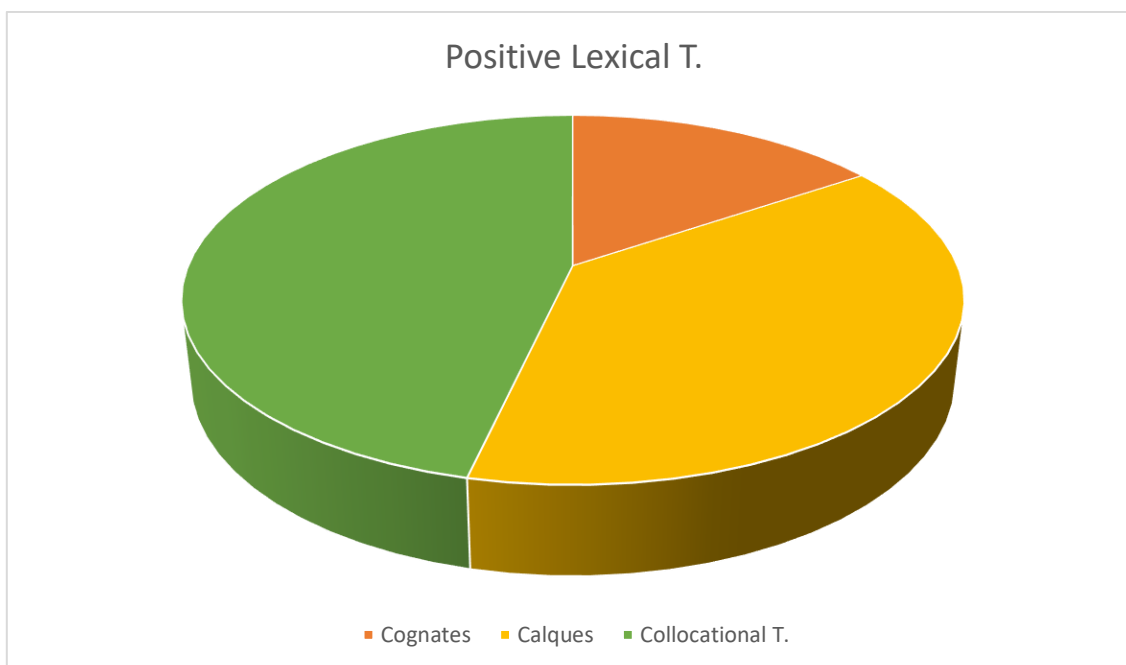
POSITIVE LEXICAL TRANSFER

| LEXEMIC | LEMATIC | |
|---------|---|--|
| Cognate | Calque | Collocational transfer |
| | Sí, es raro(+18.1) | ...muchos niños que no tienen mucho y por eso hay muchas enfermedades (+12.4) |
| | ...quizás(+18.3) | ... pienso en cómo conjugar mis verbos más...(+)13.8) |
| | Mi padre trabaja mucho y no tiene tiempo libre para viajar(+19.5) | ...entonces perdí tiempo (+13.10) |
| | Y con el dinero que la escuela recibió...(+)19.8) | Mi español es así así(+15.1) |
| | Pero un día algo terrible sucedió(+19.9) | Es muy diferente de dónde yo vivo (+16.1) |
| | ...me gusta mucho la naturaleza(+20.3) | Hay más gente, más parques , más que hacer (+16.2) |
| | | Soy la más joven (+17.1) |
| | | ...un poquito nerviosa (+17.2) |
| | | ...pero no estoy segura, es tan grande... (+17.3) |
| | | ... tan bonito que España... (+17.3) |
| | | ...estoy tan joven... (+17.3) |
| | | ...es difícil estudiar cuando estamos en un... (+17.4) |
| | | Y nunca voy a estar aquí en la misma situación (+17.5) |
| | | Tenemos que hacer clases de Ciencias y... teatro, y otras cosas (+17.8) |
| | | Y aprendí mucho sobre el baile (+17.9) |
| | | ... decisiones sobre el plan médico (+17.10) |
| | | Creo que disfrutaría trabajando con los estudiantes de la universidad (+18.4) |
| | | La economía es más importante que las cosas sociales (+18.6) |
| | | Estoy aprendiendo mucho más que... (+19.1) |
| | | Como vivir en un país distingo (+19.2) |
| | | ...me encantó y quería continuar estudiando (+19.3) |
| | | Hay muchas más reglas (+19.4) |
| | | ... contacto con los profesores (+20.1) |

| POSITIVE LEXICAL TRANSFER | | |
|---------------------------|--------------------|--|
| LEXEMIC | LEMMATIC | |
| Cognate | Calque | Collocational transfer |
| | | Solo necesito tres clases más para especializar en español (+20.2) |
| | | ...les gusta esta forma de vida (+20.4) |
| | | ...la gente que viven aquí quieren sus recursos naturales (+20.5) |
| | | ...en las universidades todavía aprender estoy y, ah, buscar por la causa de la violencia (+20.6) |
| 41 Cognates | 100 Calques | 122 Collocational transfers |

Table 1.- Summary of positive lexical transfers found in this research

After carrying out a careful analysis of the speech of the 20 USA participants I have identified, classified, explained, and found the origin of 263 positive lexical transfers, both in the category of *lexemic* and *lemmatic* lexical transfers. As for *lexemic*, only 41 *cognates* have been identified; whereas, 222 *lemmatic* positive lexical transfers have been found, 100 of which are *calques* and 122 are *collocational transfers*. I will not go into these findings in further detail as the final results are offered in Chapter 5.



Graph 1.- Representation of the number of positive lexical transfers found in this research

4.2.-Negative lexical transfer

As has been mentioned previously in this paper, Lexical transfer occurs whenever the L1 or any other L2 that a speaker knows has an effect over the speaker's expression. Participants in this research were only under the influence of their L1 as they spoke no L2 other than Spanish. In the case of negative lexical transfer the effect is caused on the lexical level when the lexical items of a speaker's L1 cause a negative effect over the speaker's expression, regarding lexical items, leading the speaker to commit lexical errors in L2. In this study the language that is the source of influence is the participants' L1, English, that spoken by North American speakers when speaking their L2, Spanish.

4.2.1.- Participant 1 (P1)

1.1.- *La fin de semana antes de la pasada*

The speaker has made a *coinage of a new expression* whose origin is the English expression ‘*the weekend before last*’. He has literally translated the words into Spanish and maintained the same word order.

1.2.-*Depende en...*

The participant has made a *collocational transfer* as he has maintained the English collocation ‘*Depend on*’ in his L2 when the collocation in Spanish should be ‘*Depende de*’ not ‘*Depende en*’.

1.3.- *Sí, pero hay **un otra** Universidad...*

The participant has made a *collocational transfer* as he has maintained the collocation of the English indefinite article *an* with the adjective *other*, which always co-occur in his L1 as an indefinite singular adjective. The equivalent Spanish adjective does not require the use of the indefinite article *an/un*, so he should have said ‘*otra*’.

1.4.- *...es una **universidad hermana**...*

The speaker has made a *calque* of the English expression ‘*sister college*’ by translating it literally into Spanish. In Spanish, we would say ‘*universidad asociada*’ instead.

1.5.-*Porque es **business**, porque negocios...*

The participant has made a *borrowing* by using the English term ‘*business*’ when speaking Spanish. Yet, he has immediately corrected himself and used the term in Spanish.

1.6.- *...pero es **still**, todavía, mejor que Nueva York.*

The speaker has made a *borrowing* by using the English term ‘*still*’ when speaking Spanish. Although we must say that he has instantly corrected himself and used the appropriate Spanish term.

1.7.- No sé, **like** si ellos preparan una comida...

The participant has made a *borrowing* by using the English term ‘like’ when speaking Spanish. He should have said ‘como’

1.8.-Y es, hay, mucho más libertad, **so**...

The participant has made a *borrowing* by using the English term ‘so’ when speaking Spanish. He should have said ‘así que’.

1.9.-Y la tarea, muchas veces, **es para hablar** con madrileños.

The speaker has made a *subcategorization transfer*, as he has used a verb with a prepositional object when in Spanish there is no need of a prepositional object.

1.10.- ...pero las **preguntas** que tengo que **preguntarle**...

The participant has made a *collocational transfer* as he has maintained the English combination of words ‘questions are asked’ in his Spanish speech. In Spanish ‘questions are made’ rather than *asked*. His expression is redundant in Spanish as he is repeating the same term by using the noun, in the first place, and the verb of the same root, in the second.

1.11.- ...prefiero practicar el español que necesito en una oficina, **or**...

The participant has made a *borrowing* by using the English term ‘or’ when speaking Spanish. He should have said ‘o’.

1.12.- ...algo que no tengo **confianza en**.

The speaker has made a *collocational transfer* as he has maintained the words that commonly co-occur ‘confidence in’, in the same order and in the same position as he would have used them in English. In Spanish, a sentence never ends in a preposition, such preposition must be inserted into the sentence by saying ‘algo en lo que no tengo confianza’.

1.13.- ..prefiero los bares, **so** salimos al bare...

The participant has made a *borrowing* by using the English term ‘so’ when speaking Spanish. He should have said ‘así que’ or ‘por lo tanto’.

1.14.-Ah, **cert (certain)**, unos tapas, a mí no me gustan...

The speaker has made a *borrowing* by beginning to use the English term ‘*certain*’ when speaking Spanish. I must say that he immediately corrects himself by saying ‘*unos*’.

1.15.- ...*fuí a Francia para **voluntar** en.... Lourdes...*

The participant has made a *coinage of a new word or lexical invention* by creating the verb ‘*voluntar*’, whose origin is the English verb ‘volunteer’. In Spanish, there is no such verb, this concept must be expressed by using a combination of words ‘*ser/hacer/actuar de voluntario*’.

1.16.- *Mi instituto era Católico y del mismo tipo, es como **Marist**...*

The participant has made a *borrowing* by using the English term ‘*Marist*’ when speaking Spanish when referring to the Marist brothers, which is a Catholic Religious Institute of Brothers. In Spanish, he should have said ‘*Maristas*’.

1.17.-...*un programa para ir **voluntar**...*

The participant has, once again, made a *coinage of a new word or lexical invention* by creating the verb ‘*voluntar*’, whose origin is the English verb ‘volunteer’. In Spanish, there is no such verb, this concept must be expressed by using a combination of words ‘*ser/hacer/actuar de voluntario*’.

1.18.- *Los **pilgrims**, las personas que visitan...*

The participant has made a *borrowing* by using the English term ‘*pilgrims*’ when speaking Spanish. He should have said ‘*peregrinos*’.

1.19.- *Y ayudé la **gente del terreno** que no pueden caminar...*

The speaker has made a *calque*, as he has literally translated the English expression ‘*people on the ground*’ to refer to the people who aid those who need help and cooperate with volunteer organizations, for ‘*gente del terreno*’, which is an expression that is not used in Spanish. He should have said ‘*los ayudantes*’ or something similar.

1.20.-...no pueden caminar porque están **in** silla con ruedas.

The participant has made a *borrowing* by using the English term 'in' when speaking Spanish. He should have said 'en'.

1.21.-Es muy **emocional**...

The speaker has made a *semantic extension* as the English word 'emotional' is polysemous and means, according to Merriam Webster Online Dictionary, any of the following: arousing emotion ('*emotivo*' in Spanish), relating to emotions ('*emocional*' in Spanish), markedly aroused or agitated in feeling or sensibilities ('*emocionad'o*' in Spanish). The participant has chosen the inappropriate term in Spanish as the meaning is that (the situation) aroused emotion, therefore the appropriate word would have been '*emotivo*' rather than '*emocional*'.

1.22.-Es muy *emocional*, **especially**...

The participant has made a *borrowing* by using the English term 'especially' when speaking Spanish. He should have said '*especialmente*'.

1.23.- Y Lourdes, tal vez, que es un poco demasiado **como las Iglesias**, a veces, **son**.

The speaker has made a *collocational transfer* as he has finished the sentence by using an English collocation used when comparing two objects/people; that is, with a noun and an auxiliary verb (*as churches sometimes are*). However, in Spanish, the collocation is different as the auxiliary verb should be placed before the noun (*son las Iglesias a veces*).

1.24.- Es bueno porque Lourdes **dalos** esperanza.

The participant has made a *collocational transfer* by using two words that frequently co-occur in English, verb + object (*gives them*), and he has also maintained the same order in Spanish. While, he should have said '*los da*', placing the direct object before the verb.

1.25.- ...pero **console** a ellos un poco.

The participant has made a *borrowing* by using the English verb 'console' when speaking Spanish. He should have said '*consuela*'.

1.26.-Y muchos sienten mejor, solo para, ese, en la mente. Pero **todavía** sienten mejor.

The participant has made a *semantic extension* of the English word *still* which is polysemous in English and can be used as an adverb meaning ‘*nevertheless/in spite of that*’ (in the same way the speaker has thought of the term in English ‘*Many feel better emotionally, but still feel better*’.); also adverb, meaning *happening or existing before now and continuing into the present* (as in ‘*The child is still crying*’ in which case it would correspond to the Spanish word ‘*todavía*’); as an adjective, meaning ‘*not moving*’ (as in ‘*He’s standing still*’); and so on. The participant has based his term on the English adverb first mentioned here and has chosen the Spanish term that corresponds to the second adverbial use of the word. When speaking Spanish, we would have said ‘*aún así/sin embargo*’.

1.27.- Pero muchos peregrinos quieren la agua y el agua es gratis, **so**...

The participant has made a *borrowing* by using the English word ‘*so*’ when speaking Spanish. He should have said ‘*por lo tanto*’.

1.28.-Ven si quiere, **like**...

The participant has made a *borrowing* by using the English term ‘*like*’ when speaking Spanish. He should have said ‘*como*’.

1.29.- Ahora para los que **están** muy religiosos.

The speaker has made a *semantic extension* as the verb *to be* is polysemous and means both ‘*ser*’ and ‘*estar*’ and the speaker should have used the verb ‘*ser*’ rather than ‘*estar*’.

1.30.- Porque el agua es muy importante **a** ellos...

The speaker has made a *semantic extension* of the English preposition *to*, which in Spanish can be expressed by using any of the following prepositions *a*, *hacia*, *de*, *para*. The participant has chosen the wrong preposition as he should have said *para* rather than *a*.

1.31.-Solo quiere **experienciar**...

The speaker has produced *a coinage of a new word*, as he has created the verb *experienciar* basing it on the English verb *to experience*. The Spanish term that corresponds to such verb is *experimentar*.

1.32.-...*algo diferente, or...*

The participant has made a *borrowing* by using the English term *or* when speaking Spanish. He should have said, *o*.

1.33.-*I mean...*

The participant has made various *borrowings* by saying *I mean* in English several times. He should have said *quiero decir*.

1.34.- *¿Como se dice camp?*

The participant has made a *borrowing* by using the English term *camp* when speaking Spanish. He should have said *campamento*.

1.35a.- *No tengo muchos cuentos sobre los Yankees.*

The participant has made a *calque* by translating the English term *stories* for *cuentos*, when he should have used the word *historias*.

1.35b.- *No tengo muchos cuentos sobre los Yankees.*

The speaker has made a *collocational transfer* by using the terms *stories about*, that frequently co-occur in English and maintaining the collocation in Spanish. He should have said *historias de*.

1.36.-*La película A Christmas Story?*

The participant has made a *borrowing* by using the English name of the movie *A Christmas Story* when speaking Spanish. He should have said *Un cuento de Navidad*.

1.37.- *No sé cómo se dice: es muy cheesy...*

The participant has made a *borrowing* by using the English term ‘cheesy’ when speaking Spanish. He should have said ‘cursi’.

1.38.- *Porque todos los niños son: ¡Oh, qué bonito!*

The speaker has made a *semantic extension*, as the verb *to be* is polysemous and means both ‘ser’ and ‘estar’ and the speaker should have used the verb ‘estar’ rather than ‘ser’.

1.39.- *Y ella parece como alguien que trabaja ahí...*

The speaker has made a *collocational transfer*, as he has maintained the collocation, *look like*, that frequently co-occurs in English. In Spanish, he should have said *se parece a alguien...*

1.40.- *Tengo un amigo que hícelo...*

The participant has produced a *lexical invention* by maintaining the collocation of the verb *do* followed by the direct object *it* (*did it*) and translating it into Spanish. He has thus created the past simple tense of the verb *hacer* joined to the object, which is common practice in Spanish, yet, not in this case. He should have said *lo hizo*.

1.41.-*So, tal vez, este verano.*

The participant has made a *borrowing* by using the English term *so* when speaking Spanish. He should have said *así que/por tanto*.

4.2.2.- Participant 2 (P2)

2.1.- *El trabajo es a un restaurante...*

The participant has made a *semantic extension* of the preposition *at*, as the term is polysemous in English and could be expressed by using a number of prepositions in Spanish, *en, a, por...*. The speaker has chosen the wrong term by choosing *a*, he should have used *e n*.

2.2.-*Tenemos muchos habladores.*

The speaker has produced a *lexical invention* based on the English term *speaker* by translating the verb *speak* into Spanish *hablar* and added the common masculine suffix *-or*, used to form a noun which refers to the individual who does an action. The term does exist in Spanish as an adjective not a noun, as used by the participant, and it means *chatty*.

2.3.-*En la otra mano, mis amigos...*

The participant has produced a *coinage of a new expression* rather than a word. He has done so by literally translating the English expression *on the other hand*. This expression does not exist in Spanish in this form. We would say *por otro lado*.

2.4.- *No vamos a hacer **algocomo** así.*

The speaker has made a *subcategorization transfer* as he has used a noun followed by a prepositional object when it should be a nominal object. The origin of this transfer is the English: *something like this*. Spanish does not require the use of the preposition *como*, we would simply say *así*.

2.5.- *Podemos **votar para** nuestros líderes.*

The participant has made a *collocational transfer* by using the combination of words that conventionally co-occur in English *vote for* when speaking Spanish. The verb *votar* is followed by the preposition *a* rather than *par*, as it is in English.

2.6.- *He estado en Méjico, los **buenas partes**, nunca he estado en los partes malas.*

...*los buenas partes* is a *collocational transfer* of the English combination of words: *the good parts*. The participant has maintained in Spanish the English collocation and its order, that is, the adjective prior to the noun; whereas, the natural order of these terms in Spanish would be noun + adjective. The speaker has mistaken the gender by using a masculine definite article with a feminine adjective and noun, yet that is a different matter.

2.7.- *El puede hacer los inmigrantes **iligales**, ligal.*

The speaker has made a *lexical invention* as he has created the non-existent term *iligales* in Spanish, basing the term on the English pronunciation of the word *illegal*.

2.8.- *El puede hacer los inmigrantes iligales, **ligal**.*

The speaker has made a *lexical invention* as he has created the non-existent term *ligal* in Spanish, basing the term on the English pronunciation of the word *legal*.

2.9.- *Necesitas **satisficar** a todo...*

The speaker has made a *lexical invention* as he has created the non-existent verb *satisficar* in Spanish, basing the term on the English verb *satisfy* and adding the *suffix –ar which is currently used to form verbs*.

2.10.- *Entiendo porqué los mejicanos quieren **muvorse**...*

The participant has made a *coinage* of a new term as he has created the non-existent term *muvorse* in Spanish, basing the term on the English pronunciation of the verb *move* and adding the suffix *–se* used to make the verb reflexive. The appropriate word would have been *moverse*.

2.11.- *A través **Gibraltar**...*

The speaker has made a *borrowing* of the name *Gibraltar* as he has pronounced it in English and although the Spanish spelling is identical to that of English the pronunciation might very well interfere with the understanding of the word.

2.12.- *Cerca de, **well**, pues...*

*Mi amigo, mi mejor amigos es de, **well**, pues él vive aquí...*

The participant has made a *borrowing* of the English adverb *well*.

2.13.- *Él está en Nueva York intentando ser una **D.J.***

The participant has made a *borrowing* by pronouncing the acronym *D.J.* in English when speaking Spanish. He should have used the English terms *Disk Jockey* or the acronym *D.J.* with a Spanish pronunciation because, otherwise, Spanish speakers are unable to understand both the terms and the acronym. This is a common borrowing used by Spanish speakers to refer to a person who plays music at discotheques, pubs, etc...

2.14.- No, no, no, él está en la **escuela** todavía.

The speaker has made a *semantic extension*, the origin of which is the English term school. The word *school* is polysemous as it refers to learning centers of different levels, from *pre-school*, through *secondary school*, *high school* and university, which in Spanish are referred to by using different words '*escuela*, *colegio* and *facultad*'. The participant should have used the term *facultad* rather than *escuela*.

2.15.- Mi casa, afortunadamente, **no fué afectada**.

The participant has made a *calque* as he has literally translated the passive *was not affected* into Spanish. He should have used what is known as *oración pasiva refleja*, *no se vió afectada*.

2.16.- Sí, como dos **esquinas** lejos...

The participant has made a *calque* by translating the words *blocks away* into Spanish. He has wrongly translated the word *block* for *esquina* (corner) rather than *manzana* (block), but it seems logical as blocks are marked by corners.

2.17.- ...los **bajos** completamente llenos de agua.

The speaker has made a *calque* by translating the word *basement* for *bajo*. He has wrongly translated the term as he should have said *sótano*, yet it seems logical that he has chosen the word *bajo* as the *basement* is low, yet it is underground and that is what he has failed to express.

2.18.- He **voluntado** para arreglar casas...

The participant has made a *lexical invention* by creating a term that does not exist in Spanish, basing it on his L1 verb *volunteer*. He has rightly formed the past participle of the verb by following the rules of formation of the past participle of the first conjugation, verbs ending in -ar, and adding the suffix -ado. He has opted for the right conjugation as all the newly created verbs belong to this conjugation. However, this word is non-existent and he should have said *trabajé de voluntario*.

2.19.- Las casas no podrían **ha sido arreglado**.

The speaker has made a *calque* of the English verbal form *have been fixed*, which could be translated for *ha sido arreglado*, if it were the present perfect of the verb *fix*, but it can also be translated for *haber sido arreglado*, if it were the infinitive perfect of the verb *fix*. As the speaker would have said *could not have been fixed* if he were speaking English, the verbal form *have been fixed* is a passive infinitive perfect of the verb *fix*, therefore, the appropriate verbal form in Spanish is *haber sido arregladas*.

2.20.- *Pués, yo estaba en el **colegio**...*

The speaker has made a *semantic extension*, the origin of which is the English term school. The word *school* is polysemous as it refers to learning centers of different levels, from *pre-school*, through *secondary school*, *high school* and university, which in Spanish are referred to by using different words '*escuela, colegio and facultad*'. The participant should have used the term *facultad* rather than *colegio*.

2.21.-...*cuando el huracán **venido**...*

The participant has made a *semantic extension* of the English verbal form *came*, which is polysemous and means both *vino* and *venido*. He should have opted for the past simple *vino* rather than for the past participle *venido*, as he has done.

2.22.- ...*entonces no estaba ahí cuando **lo** pasó.*

The speaker has made a *calque*, as he has translated the English words, when *it happened*. He has translated the personal adjective *it* for the Spanish article *lo*, when he should have omitted the subject altogether.

2.23.-*Fué, **wow**, como...*

The participant has made a *borrowing* by using the English interjection *wow* when speaking Spanish. He should have said *puf*, or something similar.

2.24.-...*un trabajo en el que tiene **benefits**.*

The participant has made a *borrowing* by using the English term *benefits* when speaking Spanish. He should have said *beneficios*.

2.25.-...y *seguridad de salud*...

The participant has made a *collocational transfer* by maintaining the combination of words that frequently co-occur in English, *health insurance*. In Spanish, the term *salud* is not used in this combination. The correct expression in Spanish is *seguro medico* instead of *seguridad desalud*.

2.26.- ...sus papeles, entonces es *unjusto*.

The speaker has made a *coinage* of a new term as he has created the word *unjusto*, which does not exist in Spanish. He has based this word on the English term *unjust/unfair*, which use the prefix *un-* to form the opposite meaning of the root word. Nevertheless, in Spanish, the appropriate prefix is *in-*, resulting in the term *injusto*, rather than *unjusto*.

2.27.- *Porque ellos va a vivir vidas que no son, ah, shit.*

The participant has made a *borrowing* by using the English term *shit* when speaking Spanish. He is becoming exhausted and has used this term to express such a feeling. In Spanish, he should have said *mierda*.

2.28.-*I'm just losing it...*

The participant has made a *borrowing* by using the complete English sentence *I'm losing it* when speaking Spanish. He should have said *ya no puedo más*.

2.29.-*Yeah, it's pretty tough.*

The participant has made a *borrowing* by using the complete English sentence *Yeah, it's pretty tough*. He has become exhausted of speaking his L2 and therefore cannot help himself.

2.30.- *Yo creo que es Google o algo como así...*

...la caja contiene una pintura o *algo como así*.

Yo podría encontrar más felis en la naturaleza o algo como así.

The speaker has made the same *subcategorization transfer* three times, as he has used a noun followed by a propositional object, which is unnecessary. In Spanish we would simply say: *o algo así*.

2.31.- *Entonces, la..., pero..., **el punto de** una sala de relajar es para... relajar*

The participant has made a *coinage of a new expression* by translating the English expression *the point of*, meaning *the objective of*. In English, he would have said that the point of a relaxation suite is to relax; whereas, in Spanish, he should have said *el objetivo de una sala de relajación es...*

2.32.- *...el punto de una sala de relajar es para, **como el nombre dice**, es para relajar*

The speaker has made a *coinage of a new expression* by translating into Spanish the English expression, *as the name says*; whereas in Spanish, he should have used the verb *mencionar* and said: *como su propio nombre indica*.

2.33.- *...es algo mal **a** mí...*

*Pero escopturas son muy bien **a** mí.*

The speaker has made the same *semantic extension* of the preposition *for* twice. The preposition *for* has several meanings and may be translated into Spanish for: *a, para, por, durante...* The participant has chosen an inappropriate preposition as he should have opted for *para*, rather than *a*.

2.34.- *Yo creo que la persona que **dueña** la bicicleta es pobre...*

The participant has extended the use of the Spanish noun *dueña* into a verb, thus creating a new use of the word. I would say that he has produced a *coinage of a new word* by transforming a noun into a verb. The origin of this transformation is the English verb *own* together with the noun *owner*. *Dueña* would correspond to the noun *owner*, yet the participant in his speech has remembered the noun *dueña* rather than the verb *poseer* or the construction *ser el dueño*. The sentence in Spanish would have most naturally been said: *Yo creo que el dueño de la bicicleta es pobre*; which does not require the use of the verb *own* and simply uses the noun *dueño*, which is apparently what the speaker intended to do but finally made a

sentence which is the combination of both languages. He has started speaking English by saying: *I believe that the person who...* and continued speaking Spanish by saying *que* (la) *dueña* (de) *la bicicleta*.

2.35.- Ay, ¿Cómo se dice? ¿**Basquetas**?

The speaker has made a *coinage of a new word*. He has based this term on the English noun *basket* and added the suffix –as used to form a feminine plural noun in Spanish.

2.36.- *Todo en Nueva Jersey es cerca de Nueva York.*

Ellos son, están enfermos...

The speaker has made a *semantic extension*, as the verb *to be* is polysemous and means both ‘*ser*’ and ‘*estar*’ and the speaker should have used the verb ‘*estar*’ rather than ‘*ser*’. However, the participant has automatically corrected his misuse of the term and produced the right word in both instances.

2.37.-...*están enfermos or viejos...*

The participant has made a *borrowing* by using the English term *or* when speaking Spanish.

2.38.- *No se por qué pero ellos son, están todos sonriendo.*

The speaker has made a *semantic extension*, as the verb *to be* is polysemous and means both ‘*ser*’ and ‘*estar*’ and the speaker should have used the verb ‘*estar*’ rather than ‘*ser*’. However, the participant has automatically corrected his misuse of the term and produced the right word in both instances.

2.39.-*Me gusta Hockey and Lacross...*

The participant has made a *borrowing* by using the English term *and* when speaking Spanish.

2.40.- *Me gusta juga..., practicar basketball.*

The participant has made a *borrowing* by using the English term *basketball* when speaking Spanish.

2.41.-Hay un **goal** aquí.

The participant has made a *borrowing* by using the English term *goal* when speaking Spanish.

2.42.- Yo puedo gustar **escolpturas**, pero ...

Pero **escolpturas** son muy bien a mí.

The speaker has made a *coinage of a new word*. The term he has created is based on the English word *sculptures*, he has phonetically reproduced that term in Spanish.

2.43.-**Peruviana**.

The participant has made a *lexical invention*. He has based the word on the English term *Peruvian* and has added the suffix –a used to form the feminine nouns in Spanish. He should have said *peruana*.

2.44.- No **sé qué** yo voy a hacer.

The speaker has made a *collocational transfer* of the English combination of words: *know what*. However, he is unaware that, in Spanish, in reported speech, the interrogative particle, *qué*, must be preceded by the pronoun, *lo*. Consequently, he should have said: *No sé lo qué voy a hacer*.

4.2.3.- Participant 3 (P3)

3.1.- Fué un poco más **difícil para hablar**.

The participant has made a *subcategorization transfer* that involves the adjective *difícil* which is followed by a prepositional object when it does not require such preposition. The speaker should have said: *Fué un poco más difícil hablar*.

3.2.- Hay mucha gente que a veces son más, no **están** amables.

The participant has made a *semantic extension* of the verb *to be*, which is polysemous in English and in Spanish means both *ser* and *estar*. He first opted for the right choice but ended up choosing the wrong verb.

3.3.-*Aprendimos de la Historia.*

...*fué interesante **aprender de** la Historia.*

The speaker has made the same *collocational transfer* twice, as he has maintained the English conventional co-occurrence of words *learn about* in Spanish.

3.4.- *Sí, fue en el **hastel**.*

The participant has made a *lexical invention* based on the English pronunciation of the word *hostel*. The actual word in Spanish is *hostal*.

3.5.-*Fue un **programa** que...*

The speaker has made a *semantic extension*, as the English word *program* is polysemous because it may be used to refer to a *program* as well as to a *course*. Yet, in Spanish, there are two different terms that refer to these ideas *programa* and *curso* and the speaker should have chosen the second term.

3.6.- *Fue un programa que **usa** un guía.*

The participant has made a *calque* as he has literally translated the term *use* into Spanish when it is actually inappropriate. He should have said: *Fué un curso que ofrecía una guía*, or something similar.

3.7.- *Pero quiero ir **un otra** vez a Praga.*

*Pero **un otro** vez quiero*

The participant has made the same *collocational transfer* twice, as he has maintained the collocation of the English indefinite article *an* with the adjective *other*, which always co-occur in his L1 as an indefinite singular adjective. The equivalent Spanish adjective does not require the use of the indefinite article *an/un*. He should have said *otra*.

3.8.- *En este viaje no, no **pienso**. Pero un otro vez quiero, sí.*

The participant has made a *semantic extension* of the English verb *think*. This word is polysemous and is linked to several concepts: *to believe that something is true, to have an opinion about someone or something* and *to form or have (a thought) in your mind* (Merriam Webster Dictionary). The verb *creer* is linked to the first concept of the word in English; in the second case, we would use the verb *pensar* or *considerar*; and in the third, we would use *pensar*. In this case, the speaker should have chosen the first concept rather than the second.

3.9.- *Pero **parece como**, que las personas son muy amables.*

The participant has made a *collocational transfer* by using the combination of words that frequently co-occur in English *feels/seems like* in Spanish. He needn't have used the adverb *como*.

3.10.-...y ella **ayúdame** mucho.

The speaker has made a *collocational transfer* as he has maintained the order of the English co-occurrence of words, *help me*, when speaking Spanish. The term does exist in Spanish but is only used in imperative sentences, while in regular statements the right order would be *me ayuda*.

3.11.- *Y no **experiencia** toda la cultura.*

The participant has made a *lexical invention* by translating the English word *experience*, which is both a verb and a noun. The word exists in Spanish but only as a noun, to use a verb he should have opted for the verb *sentir* and said: *no siente toda la cultura*.

3.12.- *He estudiado español **por cuatro años**.*

*Los clases es dos horas clase **por dos días** cada semana.*

In these two cases, the use of the term *por* is a *collocational transfer* of the terms that frequently co-occur in English *for + period of time*. The speaker has used the English combination when speaking Spanish, when he should have used *durante + period of time*.

3.13.- *Pienso que puede **pagar por** más, pero...*

The use of the terms *pagar por* is a *collocational transfer* as the speaker is using the combination of words that conventionally co-occur in English, *pay for*, when in Spanish the preposition *por* is not needed.

3.14.- *Yo aprendí la lengua de mejicana, los **acentos** y palabras más común en Méjico.*

The term *acentos* is a *coinage of a new term*, which is based on the English pronunciation of the word *accents*. The speaker has created the word in Spanish by adding the suffix –os, used to form the masculine plural noun. In word in Spanish does not have a double ‘c’.

3.15.- *...y es interesante **para** mirar en las...*

*Es difícil **para** practicar...*

*Es fácil por los mejicanos **para** obtener...*

The speaker has made three *subcategorization transfers*, as he has used an adjective followed by a prepositional object when in Spanish there is no need, in none of the three cases, of a prepositional object.

3.16.- *No quiero hablar porque es un poco, **estoy** un poco tímido.*

The verbal form *estoy* is inappropriate, as the speaker should have used *soy*. This is the result of a *semantic extension*, as the English verb *be* is linked to two different concepts in Spanish: *ser* and *estar*. The speaker first chose the appropriate verb, though not in the right person. He should have used *soy* rather than *es* but later changed and used the wrong verb.

3.17a.- *...y es fácil **por** los mejicanos para obtener...*

*Pero **por** ellos es solo de Historia*

The speaker has made the same *semantic extension* of the preposition *for* twice. The preposition *for* has several meanings and may be translated into Spanish for: *a, para, por, durante...* The participant has chosen an inappropriate preposition as he should have opted for the preposition *para*, rather than *por*.

3.17b.- *...porque no necesitan aprender **tan mucho** y en los clases altas es más de Historia,...*

The speaker has made a *collocational transfer*, as he has maintained the English conventional co-occurrence of words *so much* by saying *tan mucho*. He should have said *tanto* instead.

3.18.- *Pués, **aprendí de** la Historia también.*

The speaker has made the same *collocational transfer*, as he has maintained the English conventional co-occurrence of words *learn about* in Spanish.

3.19.- *He vivido en Minnesota **por dieciseis años** más o menos.*

In this case, the use of the term *por* is a *collocational transfer* of the terms that frequently co-occur in English *for + period of time*. The speaker has used the English combination when speaking Spanish, when he should have used *durante+ period of time*.

3.20.- *...y cuando terminé colegio fui a Colorado **por** la Universidad.*

The speaker has made a same *semantic extension* of the preposition *for*. The preposition *for* has several meanings and may be translated into Spanish for: *a, para, por, durante...* The participant has chosen an inappropriate preposition as he should have opted for the preposition *a*, rather than *por*.

3.21.- *Después de eso voy a **mover** a Tejas...*

The verb *mover* does exist in Spanish but is only used to express movement of objects from one place to another, not movement of people changing place of residence. In this case, we use the verb *mudarse*. The speaker has consequently made a *lexical invention* based on the English verb *move*, meaning ‘to change one’s residence or location’ (Merriam Webster).

3.22.- *Empecé a **buscar por** un trabajo.*

The collocation *look for* should not have been maintained in Spanish as the preposition *for* is unnecessary. The speaker has, consequently, made a *collocational transfer* from this English co-occurrence of words.

3.23.- *Mis hermanas están estudiando en Dallas y **es** muy cerca...*

The speaker has made a *semantic extension*, as the verb *be* is polysemous and means both ‘*ser*’ and ‘*estar*’ and the speaker should have used the verb ‘*estar*’ rather than ‘*ser*’.

3.24.- ...*personas en escuelas o universidades **están** americanas*...

The speaker has made a *semantic extension*, as the verb *to be* is polysemous and means both ‘*ser*’ and ‘*estar*’ and the speaker should have used the verb ‘*ser*’ rather than ‘*estar*’.

3.25.- *Cuando yo **atempto** a aprender un otro lengua*...

The verb *atempto* is the result of a *lexical invention* based on the English verb *attempt*. The speaker has added the suffix –o used to form the first person of the present simple of the verbs belonging to the first conjugation.

3.26.- *Cuado yo atempto a aprender **un otro** lengua*...

*Pero cuando studio en **un otro** sitio,*

*...**un otro** país*...

*Eran en un zuologico y fueron **un otro**.*

The participant has made the same *collocational transfer* four times, as he has maintained the collocation of the English indefinite article *an* with the adjective *other*, which always co-occur in his L1 as an indefinite singular adjective. The equivalent Spanish adjective does not require the use of the indefinite article *an/un*. He should have said *otro/otra*.

3.27.- *Y es lo misma **grada** y nivel.*

The term *grada* is a *coinage of a new term* based on the English word *grade* ‘the level of study that is completed by a student during one year’ (Merriam Webster). The speaker has added the suffix –a used to form the singular feminine noun.

3.28.- *Y, en Estados Unidos, mucha **gente** que **estudian***...

The use of the term *gente* followed by a verb in plural is an English collocation, as these two terms, in this number, usually co-occur in English; while in Spanish the combination is always singular. Therefore, the speaker has produced a *collocational transfer*.

3.29.-¿Es **Madagascar**?

The name *Madagascar* is a *lexical invention* of the word based on the reproduction of the English pronunciation of the name of the island. In Spanish, the appropriate name is *Madagascar*.

3.30.-Eran en un **zuológico**.

*Es una película de animales que viajan al **zuológico**.*

The term *zuológico* is the result of a *lexical invention* based on the pronunciation of the English noun *zoo* plus the ending of the Spanish word *zoológico*. The speaker has produced a combination of the two words and formed this new term in Spanish.

3.31.- Es una película **por** niños.

The speaker has made a same *semantic extension* of the preposition *for*. The preposition *for* has several meanings and may be translated into Spanish for: *a, para, por, durante...* The participant has chosen an inappropriate preposition as he should have opted for the preposition *para*, rather than *por*.

3.32.-**Eran** en un **zujológico** y...

*...sí, ella **es** muy emocionada.*

*...y eso **es** en inglés, las palabras...*

The speaker has made the same *semantic extension* twice, as the verb *to be* is polysemous and means both ‘*ser*’ and ‘*estar*’ and the speaker should have used the verb ‘*estar*’ rather than ‘*ser*’.

3.33.- Banderas, pero no **están** de americanas.

*...y las ruedas **están** amarilla también.*

The speaker has made the same *semantic extension* three times, as the verb *to be* is polysemous and means both ‘*ser*’ and ‘*estar*’ and the speaker should have used the verb ‘*ser*’ rather than ‘*estar*’.

3.34.- *Y los zapatos de Nike es **yuniversal**.*

The term *yuniversal* is a *coinage of a new term* based on the English pronunciation of the word *universal*, whose ‘u’ sounds like a ‘y’. Therefore, the participant has reproduced that sound when speaking Spanish, resulting in the creation of a new word.

3.35.- *Jugaba baseball **por** seis años.*

In this case, the use of the term *por* is a *collocational transfer* of the terms that frequently co-occur in English *for + period of time*. The speaker has used the English combination when speaking Spanish, when he should have used *durante + period of time*.

4.2.4.-Participant 4 (P4)

4.1.-*I like Dani?*

The structure *I like* is a *borrowing* from English. The speaker should have maintained the Spanish structure, *Me gusta*, which she had previously used.

4.2.- *...mi otra profesora es **difícil para** entender.*

The speaker has made a *subcategorization transfer*, as she has used an adjective followed by a prepositional object when, in Spanish, there is no need of a prepositional object.

4.3.- *...es difícil para entender **and the** clases es...*

The participant has made a *borrowing* by using the English words *and the* when speaking Spanish.

4.4.- *Sí, lo misma, lo mismo ¿**colegio**?Universidad, sí.*

The speaker has made a *semantic extension*, the origin of which is the English term *school*. The word *school* is polysemous as it refers to learning centers of different levels, from *pre-school*, through *secondary school*, *high school* and *college*, which in Spanish are referred to by using different words ‘*escuela*, *colegio* and *facultad*’. The participant should have used

the term *facultad* rather than *colegio* because she is speaking about an individual who is studying at *university*.

4.5- *Medio Ambientem, sí y español es mi **minor**.*

¿Minor?

The participant has made a *borrowing* by using the English word *minor* when speaking Spanish. The word was expressed and pronounced in English.

4.6.-*¿Menor?*

The participant repeatedly tried to find a word that would correspond to the English term *minor* - of or relating to an academic subject requiring fewer courses than a major (Merriam Webster Dictionary) – and has finally produced a *false cognate*, as the Spanish term *menor* – que es inferior a otra cosa en cantidad, intensidad o calidad (Diccionario de la Real Academia Española) – is not used to refer to this type of subjects. The corresponding word could be ‘*asignatura maría*’.

4.7.-*Sí pero no **estoy flu**, **fluente**.*

The verb *estar* in this sentence is a *calque* from the English verb *be*, which the speaker has used as a literal translation of the English sentence, *I am not fluent*. This is inappropriate and would be expressed by saying: *no hablo con...*

4.8.- *Sí pero no estoy **flu**, **fluente**.*

The word *fluente* is a *lexical invention* based on the English adjective, *fluent*. In Spanish, there is no adjective to refer to this quality as there is in English.

4.9.-***So**, uno año.*

The participant has made a *borrowing* by using the English word *so* when speaking Spanish.

4.10.-***Well**, **hold on**...*

The participant has made a *borrowing* by using the English expression, *well hold on*, when speaking Spanish.

4.11.-Y, *well*, *pero*...

The participant has made a *borrowing* by using the English word *well* when speaking Spanish.

4.12.- *Quiero estudiar español y es **mejor para** estudiar aquí...*

The speaker has made a *subcategorization transfer*, as she has used an adjective followed by a prepositional object when, in Spanish, there is no need of a prepositional object.

4.13.- ...y es mejor para estudiar aquí, *but*, *pero*...

The participant has made a *borrowing* by using the English word *but* when speaking Spanish.

4.14.-...pero, *por* mis estudios de Medio Ambiente es mejor en America del Sur.

The participant has made a *semantic extension* of the preposition *for*, as the term is polysemous in English and could be expressed by using a number of prepositions in Spanish, *por*, *para*, *durante*... The speaker has chosen the wrong term by choosing *por*, she should have used *para*.

4.15.- Tien, *yes*, tienen problemmas, *por ejemplo*...

The participant has made a *borrowing* by using the English word *yes* when speaking Spanish.

4.16.-*Hold on*.

The participant has made a *borrowing* by using the English sentence, *hold on*, when speaking Spanish.

4.17.-*So, I'll think of this on my head, so...*

The participant has made a *borrowing* by using the whole English sentence reproduced above when speaking Spanish.

4.18.- Hay *apartunidades* con energía reusable.

The term *apartunidades* is a *coinage of a new word*, based on the pronunciation of the English word, *opportunities*. The speaker has combined the Spanish term, *oportunidad*, with the English pronunciation of the English word, thus creating a new lexical item in Spanish.

4.19.- *Hay apartunidades con energía reusable.*

The word *reusable* is a *coinage of a new word*, based on the English term *reusable*. The speaker should have used the term *renovable*.

4.20.- **Right**, sí, es un ejemplo.

The participant has made a *borrowing* by using the English term *right*, when speaking Spanish.

4.21.- *He aprendido mucho sobre los países en mis clases...*

The combination of words *aprendido sobre* is a *collocational transfer* of the English combination of words *learn about*. The words that co-occur in Spanish, in this case, are *aprender acerca de* or *aprender de*.

4.22.- ...y, **well**, pero no he venido allí.

The participant has made a *borrowing* by using the English term *well*, when speaking Spanish.

4.23.- ...y, *well*, pero no he **venido** allí.

The word *venido* is a *calque* of the English verb *come*. In English, it is acceptable to say: I haven't come there. Whereas, in Spanish, if we are talking about *there*, we can never use the verb *venir*, we have to use *ir*.

4.24.- *Me parece que es bien.*

The verbal form *es* is inappropriate, as the speaker should have used *está*. This is the result of a *semantic extension*, as the English verb *be* is linked to two different concepts in Spanish: *ser* and *estar*. The speaker has chosen the term that does not correspond with the correct lexical item in Spanish.

4.25.-*Me gusta ¿meals?*

The participant has made a *borrowing* by using the English term *meals*, when speaking Spanish.

4.26.- *Los **tiempos de cenar** es muy diferente.*

The words *tiempos de cenar* is a *collocational transfer* as the speaker is maintaining the English combination of words, *dinner time*, when speaking Spanish. The correct combination in Spanish is *las horas de cenar*.

4.27.- *Los tiempos de cenar **es** muy diferente.*

The use of the verb *ser*, in third person singular is the result of a *calque*. As in English the noun, *dinner time*, is singular, the speaker has coordinated the verbal form to the English number of the noun; while in Spanish, the number of the noun, *horas de cenar*, is plural, which forces the speaker to use the plural verbal form, *son*.

4.28.- *Sí, en los **bars**, sí.*

*Sí, **bars**.*

The participant has made a couple of *borrowings* by using the English term *bars twice*, when speaking Spanish.

4.29.-***When I drink.***

The participant has made a *borrowing* by using the English sentence, *When I drink*, when speaking Spanish.

4.30.- *Necesito aprender a cocinar mucho, no, **more**, más.*

The participant has made a *borrowing* by using the English term *more*, when speaking Spanish. She has, however, immediately corrected herself by using the Spanish term.

4.31.- *En el pasado viví en un **dormitorio** y...*

The term *dormitorio* is a *false cognate* of the English word *dormitory* as the Spanish term refers to a *bedroom*, en una vivienda, pieza destinada para dormir (Diccionario de la Real Academia Española); and, in this context, the English word refers to a building on a school campus that has rooms where students can live (Merriam Webster). The speaker should have used the term Colegio Mayor.

4.32.-...y la gente, las personas son muy amables **para**, ¿por mí?

The term *para* is a *semantic extension* of the English word *to*, which in Spanish may be expressed by using several prepositions, such as *para*, *por*, *a*, *hacia*, *de*... The speaker should have used the preposition *con* instead.

4.33.-...y la gente, las personas son muy amables para, ¿**por** mí?

The term *por* is a *semantic extension* of the English word *to*, which in Spanish may be expressed by using several prepositions, such as *para*, *por*, *a*, *hacia*, *de*... The speaker should have used the preposition *con* instead.

4.34.-¿por mi? **To me?**

The participant has made a *borrowing* by using the English terms, *to me*, when speaking Spanish.

4.35.- Las personas son más **emocionada**, más...

The word *emocionada* is the result of a *calque* of the English word *emotional*. The speaker has chosen a close word to the English term, yet, the meaning, though it has to do with emotions, refers to showing emotion, rather than feeling emotion, which is what the speaker means. Therefore, she should have used the word *emotiva* instead.

4.36.-**Excited, happy.**

The participant has made two *borrowings* by using the English terms, *excited* and *happy*, when speaking Spanish.

4.37.-¿Cómo se dice **Spaniards**?

The participant has made a *borrowing* by using the English term *Spaniard*, when speaking Spanish.

4.38.- *¿Vives en Cape Cod?- Sí, ¿sabes?*

¿Sabes Runway? ¿Conoces Runway?

The choice of the verb *saber* is a *semantic extension* of the English verb *know*, which is linked to several concepts: to have (information of some kind) in your mind; to understand (something); to have learned (something, as a skill or a language) (Merriam Webster). The first case would correspond to the Spanish verb *saber*; the second to *comprender*; and the third to *conocer*. The speaker has opted for the wrong term, as she is asking if I have ever been to Cape Cod and so, if I have learned about this place before; also, if I know what Runway is. Therefore, both questions require the verb *conocer*.

4.39.-*Mi padre es un ingeniero, **engineer**.*

The participant has made a *borrowing* by using the English term *engineer* when speaking Spanish. She had previously used the right word yet, must have felt uncertain and therefore, expressed the word in English to make sure the message had gotten through.

4.40.-*Sí, **estaba** muy divertido.*

The verbal form *estaba* is inappropriate, as the speaker should have used *fue*. This is the result of a *semantic extension*, as the English verb *be* is linked to two different concepts in Spanish: *ser* and *estar*.

4.41.- *Sí, estaba muy divertido, el **atmosférico**.*

The speaker has made a *calque* of the English word *atmosphere*. She has translated it literally into Spanish and used an inappropriate term. She should have said *ambiente*.

4.42.-*Es muy largo **too**.*

The participant has made a *borrowing* by using the English term *too*, when speaking Spanish.

4.43.- *Sobre hielo, sí. Es mi **feivorito**.*

The term *feivorito* is a *lexical invention* based on the English pronunciation of the word *favorite*. The speaker has adapted the Spanish term *favorito* to the pronunciation of the English adjective.

4.44.-¿Cómo se dice '**box**'?

The participant has made a *borrowing* by using the English term *box*, when speaking Spanish.

4.45.-Es una habitación **common**.

The participant has made a *borrowing* by using the English term *common*, when speaking Spanish.

4.46.-¿Cómo se dice **parachute**?

The term *parachute* is a *borrowing* of the speaker's L1.

4.47.-Es un **view**.

The word *view* is a *borrowing* of the speaker's L1.

4.2.5.- Participant 5 (P5)

5.1.- Porque es desde **Kindergarten**, ¿sabes?

The term *kindergarten* is a *borrowing or unintentional language switch* of the speaker's L1.

5.2.-Y luego quería **tomar** una clase de francés.

Porque no he **tomado** ningunas clases.

The verb *tomar*, in this context, is a *semantic extension* of the English term *take*, which is polysemous and is used to talk about following a course, spending time, transporting from one place to another.... In Spanish, the right verb, in this case, is *ir a*.

5.3.- Entonces, **próximo año** seguí con español...

The participant has made a *calque* of the English words, *the next year*. He has made a bad translation of the terms into Spanish. He, in fact, had two options to choose from, *próximo* and *siguiente* and he has made the wrong choice because *próximo* means – Siguiente, inmediatamente posterior (DRAE) – that is, the year immediately after the current year, whereas *siguiente* means the year after that which we are talking about. The latter would have been his right choice.

5.4.- *Hace cuatro años **sin** una clase de español.*

The word *sin* in this sentence is a *calque* of the English preposition *without*. However, in Spanish it should not substitute the verbal form as it does in colloquial English. The speaker should have said: *Hace cuatro años que no tomo clase de español/ Hace cuatro años que estoy sin clase de español.*

5.5.- *Yo **tomo** mis clases de negocios.*

*Porque no he **tomado** ningunas clases.*

The verb *tomar*, in this context, is a *semantic extension* of the English term *take*, which is polysemous and is used to talk about following a course, spending time, transporting from one place to another.... In Spanish, the right verb, in this case, is *ir a*.

5.6.- *Porque no he tomado **ningunas** clases.*

The terms *ningunas clases* is a *calque* whose origin is the English words *any classes* (I haven't taken any classes). The speaker has maintained the plural in both the quantifier and the noun, whereas in Spanish, the singular form would be used.

5.7.- *Pero es que **todavía**, mi nivel es bastante bien.*

The term *todavía* is a *semantic extension* of the English term *still*, which is polysemous as it is linked to several different concepts -*not moving* (adj.); *to become motionless or silent* (v.); *happening or existing before now and continuing into the present* (adv.); *in spite of that* (adv.) (Merriam Webster). The speaker has used the word as an adverb and, therefore, had two options, *happening before now*- *todavía*- and *in spite of that*- *a pesar de ello*. He has made the wrong choice as he should have said: *Pero a pesar de ello, mi nivel...*

5.8.-¿Cómo se dice **stereotype**?

The term stereotype is a *borrowing* from the speaker's L1.

5.9.- ...no es como una familia española, latina, son, esas familias son más ¿cerca?

The words *cerca* is a *semantic extension* of the English word *close*. In English, we say that people are close, meaning *intimate*; we can also say that people are close, meaning *not distant*. In Spanish, there is one word for each of these two concepts: *close* (distant) *cerca*, *close* (inimate) *cercana*. Consequently, the speaker should have opted for the term *cercana* rather than *cerca*.

5.10.-Cada festival, cada **holiday**...

The term holiday is an *unintentional language switch* of the speaker's L1.

5.11.- Entonces, no **estoy** cercano con su familia.

The verbal form *estoy* is inappropriate, as the speaker should have used *soy*. This is the result of a *semantic extension*, as the English verb *be* is linked to two different concepts in Spanish: *ser* and *estar*. The speaker has chosen the term that does not correspond with the correct lexical item in Spanish as he should have said: no me siento cercano a su familia.

5.12.- Tengo un hermano adoptivo, y es negro. Entonces **desde el** nació...

The sentence *desde el nació* is a *collocational transfer* of the adverb since + subject + verb. In Spanish, the natural combination is: desde + que + subject + verb. Therefore, the speaker should have said: *desde que el nació*.

5.13.- Yo me fuí a la casa con mi padre **por dos años**.

The term *por* is a *collocational transfer* of the terms that frequently co-occur in English *for* + *period of time*. The speaker has used the English combination when speaking Spanish, when he should have used *durante* + *period of time*; this is, he should have said: *durante dos años*.

5.14.- Tiene buen nivel de característi, carac, carica ¿Cómo se dice? **Character**.

The term *character* is a *borrowing* of the speaker's L1.

5.15.- ...*pues eso es una frase en inglés y voy a intentar **cambiar en** español...*

The words *cambiar en* are a *collocational transfer* of the English combination of words that conventionally co-occur, *change into* - as in, *I'm going to try to change it into Spanish*. The speaker has maintained that co-occurrence in Spanish when the best option would have been to say: *traducir al*.

5.16.-*Él sonrie y hay luz en todo...*

The speaker has made a *calque* of the English expression: *He smiles and brightens up...* He has made a literal translation of such expression, which makes no sense in Spanish.

5.17.- *Creo que quiero volver aquí para enseñar inglés **por un año**.*

The term *por* is a *collocational transfer* of the terms that frequently co-occur in English *for* + *period of time*. The speaker has used the English combination when speaking Spanish, when he should have used *durante* + *period of time*; this is, he should have said: *durante un año*.

5.18.- *La gente es más pija, más, solo se preocupan **en** sus propias cosas.*

The use of the preposition *en* after the verb *preocuparse* is the result of a *semantic extension* of the English preposition *about*, which means, *en, de, sobre...* The participant has chosen the wrong preposition in Spanish, as he should have used *de*.

5.19.- *La gente del **Medio Oeste**...*

The expression *Medio Oeste* is a *calque* of the English expression *Mid- West*. The participant has translated the words but they don't make any sense in Spanish as this area of the United States is not known through that expression.

5.20.- *Y la vida aquí es más **despacia**.*

The word *despacia* (fem.) could be considered a *coinage of a new word*, as the original term is *espacio*, masculine rather than feminine. However, as this problem occurs so frequently

to English speakers because masculine and feminine nouns do not occur in their L1, I will consider it to be a *semantic extension* of the word *slow*. This term is polysemous as it is linked to two concepts in Spanish: *despacio* (Poco a poco) (DRAE) and *lento* (*Pausado en el movimiento o en la acción; poco vigoroso o eficaz*) (DRAE). The speaker should have chosen the term *lento* as the word refers to *life being pausada en el movimiento* rather than *poco a poco*.

5.21.-*Pués, a cada sitio.*

The use of the word *cada* is a *semantic extension* of the English word *every*, which means both *cada* and *todo*. The speaker should have chosen the word *todo* rather than *cada*.

5.22.- ...*hay basket y hay futbol...*

The term *basket* is an *unintentional language switch* or *borrowing* of the speaker's L1.

5.23.-...*hay calles ¿si? Y hay Wall*

The word *wall* is a *borrowing* from the speaker's L1.

5.24.- *No quiero cargar. Sí, ¿eso es la palabra? ¿Load, to load?*

The word *load* is a *borrowing* from the speaker's L1.

5.25.- *Pués, solo esta semana porque son profes y es su descanso de primavera.*

The expression *descanso de primavera* is a *coinage of a new expression*, produced as a result of a *calque* of the English noun, *Spring break*. In Spain, such vocational period would correspond to *Semana Santa*.

5.26.-...*pués, hace veinte milas.*

The term *milas*, with a single 'l', is a *coinage of a new word* based on the English term *miles*. The appropriate word in Spanish is *millas*, with a double 'l' which may seem irrelevant but makes a great difference.

5.27.- *Mi padre estaba allí por veinte años.*

The term *por* is a *collocational transfer* of the terms that frequently co-occur in English *for* + *period of time*. The speaker has used the English combination when speaking Spanish, when he should have used *durante*+ *period of time*; that is, *durante veinte años*.

5.28.- ...y él le ***gusta mejor*** ahora.

The terms *gusta mejor* is a *collocational transfer* of the words that frequently co-occur in English *like something better*. The speaker has maintained this combination of words in Spanish, when he actually should have said *le gusta más* not *mejor*.

5.29.- *Pués, es una ciudad más pobre, y en, con un **mezclado** de gente.*

The term *mezclado*, used as a noun, is a *lexical invention*. The speaker has used a verb as an adjective, thus, creating a new lexical item.

5.30.- *No sé cómo se dice: **kicked me out**.*

The speaker has made a *borrowing* of an English sentence.

5.31.- *Sí, porque mis amigos trajeron botellas de **alcohol**.*

The participant has *created a new term* by pronouncing the word *alcohol* in English. In Spanish, the ‘h’ is mute and, therefore, sounds totally different.

5.32.- *Entonces yo no hice nada **mal**. Yo estaba pagando al estadio.*

The word *mal* is a *calque* of the English word *wrong* - as in I didn’t do anything wrong. Yet, in Spanish, the appropriate word is *malo* rather than *mal*. Because we say: *hacer cosas malas* (meaning, doing things that are not right/things that are bad) and *hacer algo mal* (meaning, making a mistake). The speaker means that he did not do anything bad.

5.33.- *Sí, sí, nos **trajeron abajo**.*

The use of the words *trajeron abajo* is the result of a *collocational transfer* as the speaker is using a combination of words that conventionally co-occur in English, *bring down*. In Spanish, we would say *nos enseñaron la salida/nos llevaron a la salida*, or in any case *nos llevaron abajo*, but never *trajeron abajo*.

5.34.-...es un **partido social**...

The qualification of *partido social* is a *calque* of the English idea of *social game*. The speaker meant that the game was one in which people go to socialize rather watch. He even states it afterwards.

5.35.-No es un **partido** para **mirar**.

The verb *mirar* is not used in Spanish to refer to a game, we use: *ver un partido*. The speaker has maintained the English conventional combination of words, *watch a game* while speaking Spanish. Therefore, he has made a *collocational transfer*.

5.36.- Y la gente de los Cubs, **siempre hay el próximo año** ¿sabes?

Hay un próximo año, hay un próximo año.

The participant has made a *calque* of the English phrase ‘*There is always next year*’, which is often heard in Cleveland and surrounding parts. Generally used to express a mix of disappointment and misguided hope towards a team’s chances of winning in the upcoming year after having failed to win a championship (urbandictionary.com). According to Wikipedia, in a referral to George Ellis, this is a philosophy that Cubs Fans live by. The speaker is talking about precisely that hope that the Cubs Fans feel, and has literally translated the whole phrase into Spanish in the first case and has shortened it in the second place.

5.37.- ... porque la gente esperaba en una fila **por días**...

The term *por* is a *collocational transfer* of the terms that frequently co-occur in English *for* + *period of time*. The speaker has used the English combination when speaking Spanish, when he should have used *durante*+ *period of time*; that is, *durante días*.

5.38.- He hecho para,pués, na más **para nueve y media horas**.

The term *para* is a *collocational transfer* of the terms that frequently co-occur in English *for* + *period of time*. The speaker has used the English combination when speaking Spanish, when he should have used *durante*+ *period of time*; that is, *durante nueve horas y media*.

5.39.- Que **un otro** par de zapatos.

The participant has made a *collocational transfer*, as he has maintained the collocation of the English indefinite article *an* with the adjective *other*, which always co-occur in his L1 as an indefinite singular adjective. The equivalent Spanish adjective does not require the use of the indefinite article *an/un*. He should have said *otro*.

5.40.- *Sí, y **eventualmente** puede ser violento.*

The term *eventualmente* is a *false cognate* of the English adverb *eventually*, as the latter means ‘at some later time’ (Merriam Webster) and the former ‘*incierto o casualmente*’.

5.41.- *Porque jugamos, jugamos **beerpong** ¿sabes?*

The noun *beerpong* is *aborrowing* from the speaker’s L1.

5.42.- *Pero **es** lleno de extranjeros...*

The verbal form *es* is inappropriate, as the speaker should have used *está*. This is the result of a *semantic extension*, as the English verb *be* is linked to two different concepts in Spanish: *ser* and *estar*. The speaker has chosen the term that does not correspond with the correct lexical item in Spanish.

5.43.- *Me encanta mi país pero quiero ser como un **European** aquí.*

The term *European* is an *unintentional language switch or borrowing* of the speaker’s L1.

4.2.6.- Participant 6 (P6)

6.1.- *...al **nivel** ocho...*

The term *nivel*, in Spanish, has been used as a *semantic extension* of the English term *grade*. The speaker meant that he had been studying Spanish since he was in 8th grade. The English term *grade* is defined as *a level of study that is completed by a student during one year* (Merriam Webster). The term *grade* is linked to two concepts: the concept of *course* and *level of study*. A possible explanation of this error is that the speaker carried over the full set

of semantic links and chose the inappropriate term *nivel* instead of *curso*, which would have been his right choicd.

6.2.-Sí, **personal**, catorce...

The term *personal* in Spanish has been used as a *calque*. It derives from the English term *personally*. The speaker may have intended to say that he, himself, had been in grade 8 when he was fourteen. It appears that he would have used the term *personally* in his English expression saying ‘*personally, at 14*’. However, if in Spanish he wanted to use the English term *personally* he should have said “yo, personalmente, a los catorce”. Instead, he has used the adjective form rather than the adverbial term. He seems to have translated the term *personally* and has done so inappropriately.

6.3.- Sí, pero **porcinco años**...

The term *por* is a *collocational transfer* of the terms that frequently co-occur in English *for* + *period of time*. The speaker has used the English combination when speaking Spanish, when he should have used *durante* + *period of time*; *this is, durante cinco años*.

6.4.-...yo estaba en el **militar**

The term *militar*, has been used as a *calque*. Speaking English, the participant would have said ‘I was in the military’. He has, therefore, made a literal translation of the English term *military* into Spanish, while he should have used the term *ejército*, saying ‘yo estaba en el ejército’.

6.5.- Yo estaba con el **Marine Corps**...

The term *Marine Corps* has been used as an *unintentional language switch or borrowing*. The speaker has used the term from his L1 when speaking in his L2. In English, he would have said ‘I was with the Marine Corps’.

6.6.- Ahora es **inactive**, en Wisconsin...

The verbal form *es* is inappropriate, as the speaker should have used *está*. This is the result of a *semantic extension*, as the English verb *be* is linked to two different concepts in Spanish:

ser and *estar*. The speaker has chosen the term that does not correspond to the correct lexical item in Spanish. In addition, the speaker has made a *borrowing* by using the word *inactive* when speaking English.

6.7.- *Sí, ahora **es** mejor, pero este invierno...*

*Ahora **es** inactive, en Wisconsin...*

The verbal form *es* is inappropriate, as the speaker should have used *está*. This is the result of a *semantic extension*, as the English verb *be* is linked to two different concepts in Spanish: *ser* and *estar*. The speaker has chosen the term that does not correspond with the correct lexical item in Spanish.

6.8.- *...tenían temperaturas **menos que** 0 grados Fahrenheit.*

Menos que is the result of a *collocational transfer*. Its origin is the English common co-occurrence *less than*, which in this case should have been expressed in Spanish with the collocation *por debajo de*. However, the speaker has maintained the English collocation, which has led him to error.

6.9.-...0 grados **Fahrenheit**.

The term *Fahrenheit* has been used as an *unintentional language switch or borrowing*. The speaker has used the term from his L1 when speaking in his L2. In Spanish, the same term is used but the pronunciation is adapted to the Spanish language and the participant has given the English pronunciation to the term, which makes it incomprehensible to speakers of Spanish.

6.10.- *...pero me gustan las ciudades que **eran**,...*

The verbal form *eran* is inappropriate, as the speaker should have used *están*. This is the result of a *semantic extension*, as the English verb *be* is linked to two different concepts in Spanish: *ser* and *estar*. The speaker has chosen the term that does not correspond with the correct lexical item in Spanish.

6.11.- *...que **son** cerca de la playa...*

The verbal form *son* is inappropriate, as the speaker should have used *están*. This is the result of a *semantic extension*, as the English verb *be* is linked to two different concepts in Spanish: *ser* and *estar*. The speaker has chosen the term that does not correspond with the correct lexical item in Spanish.

6.12.- ...y la agua toda, siempre **hace** frío.

The participant has produced a *calque*. In Spanish, we say ‘*hace frío*’ to refer to the fact that ‘*the weather is cold*’ but we say el ‘*agua está fría*’ to refer to ‘*the cold temperature of the water*’. Consequently, the speaker has translated the term ‘is’ for ‘hace’ as in the case of cold weather yet, was unaware that in the case of cold water Spanish doesn’t use the word ‘hace’ but ‘*está*’.

6.13.- ...no sé cómo se dice, ¿**infantry**?

The term *infantry* has been used as a *borrowing*. The speaker has used the term from his L1 when speaking in his L2.

6.14.-Sí, pero en **D.C.** hice...check pronunciation because if not it may be a *calque*

The term *D.C.* has been used as an *unintentional language switch* or a *borrowing*. The speaker has used the term from his L1 when speaking in his L2. In Spanish, the speaker must express the whole name of the city, Washington D.C., and must produce the acronym D.C., with Spanish pronunciation for it to be fully understood.

6.15.- ...hice **soportar** para el president...

The word *soportar* is the result of a *false cognate*. In his L1, the participant meant that he ‘*gave president support*’, yet, the term *soportar* in Spanish is a *false cognate* of the English word *support* as they are not equivalent in meaning. He should have used the word *respaldar*.

6.16.-...¿**Inauguration**?

The term *inauguration* has been used as a *borrowing*. The speaker has used the term from his L1 when speaking in his L2.

6.17.-...**Secret Services**...

The term *Secret Services* has been used as an *unintentional language switch* or a *borrowing*. The speaker has used the term from his L1 when speaking in his L2.

6.18.-...**FBI**...

The acronym FBI has been used as an *unintentional language switch* or a *borrowing*. The speaker has used the acronym by pronouncing it in his L1, the acronym is identical in his L2 but the English pronunciation would keep the listener from understanding.

6.19.-...el **militar**...

The term *military* has been used as a *calque*. The speaker has translated the English term *military* into Spanish resulting in the term *militar*, which does exist in Spanish but is not be used in this context. The participant should have used the word *ejército* in L2.

6.20.- ...los edificios para el **parade**...

The participant has used an *unintentional language switch* or a *borrowing*. The speaker has used the term from his L1 when speaking in his L2.

6.21.- ...cada edificio tiene, tenía **más que** veinte peronas.

Más que is the result of a *collocational transfer*. Its origin is the English common co-occurrence *more than*, which in this case should have been expressed in Spanish with the collocation *más de*. However, the speaker has maintained the English collocation, which has led him to error.

6.22.- Un periodista, y **he threw his**, sus zapatos...

The participant has used an *unintentional language switch* or a *borrowing*. The speaker has used the whole expression ‘*he threw his*’ from his L1 when speaking in his L2.

6.23.- ...**era** muy sobre los negocios...

The verbal form *era* is inappropriate, as the speaker should have used *está*. This is the result of a *semantic extension*, as the English verb *be* is linked to two different concepts in Spanish:

ser and *estar*. The speaker has chosen the term that does not correspond with the correct lexical item in Spanish.

6.24.- ...era muy **sobre** los negocios.

The speaker has made a *calque*. He has translated the English sentence ‘He was very (concerned) about business’ into Spanish and the result by omitting some of the elements in the sentence has been the expression mentioned above. In Spanish, this idea would have been expressed by saying ‘estaba muy concentrado en sus asuntos’.

6.25.-**You know...**

The participant has used an *unintentional language switch* or a *borrowing*. The speaker has used the terms from his L1 when speaking in his L2.

6.26.- *Creo que no estaba muy **confortable** con...*

The speaker has used a *cognate* of the English term *comfortable*, which exists in Spanish with the same meaning as in English, yet it is rarely used when referring to people’s feelings. We could say that a bed or a chair are not ‘comfortables’ but we would not say that a person does not feel ‘comfortable’, we would have to use the word “cómodo”. Consequently, the speaker has used a cognate inadequately.

6.27.-...mi amigo y yo fuimos a **Dublin**.

The participant has made an *unintentional language switch* or a *borrowing*. The speaker has used the term with an English pronunciation, thus, making it difficult for Spanish speakers to understand.

6.28.- ...había **más que** dos mil personas en la ciudad.

The speaker has used a *collocational transfer* by using two words that very frequently co-occur in English ‘more than’; whereas in Spanish he should have said ‘más de’.

6.29.- ...los bares **eran**, estaban llenos.

The verbal form *eran* is inappropriate in this statement, as the speaker should have used, as he has immediately after, *estaban*. This is the result of a *semantic extension*, as the English verb *be* is linked to two different concepts in Spanish: *ser* and *estar*. The speaker has chosen the term that does not correspond with the correct lexical item in Spanish.

6.30.- *Eran muchos turistas pero también los **Irish**, no sé.*

The term, *Irish*, is an unintentional language switch to the speaker's L1.

6.31.- *Sí, mi padre es de **London**.*

The participant has made an *unintentional language switch* or a *borrowing* by using the English name of the city.

6.32.- *Su familia es de los **Netherlands**.*

The participant has made an *unintentional language switch* or a *borrowing* by using the English name of the country.

6.33.-...**no relación**...

The speaker has used a *collocational transfer* by using a combination of two words that could be used in a colloquial English speaking context. Speaker A would say 'So your mother doesn't speak the language, she has no relationship with the Netherlands' and speaker B might respond 'no relationship, no culture'. When speaking Spanish this combination of words does not co-occur, we would in fact say '*ninguna relación, ninguna cultura*'.

6.34.-...**no cultura**.

The speaker has used a *collocational transfer* by combining two words that could appear in a colloquial English-speaking context. Speaker A would say 'So your mother doesn't speak the language, she has no relationship with the Netherlands' and speaker B might respond 'no relationship, no culture'. When speaking Spanish this combination of words does not co-occur, we would in fact say '*ninguna relación, ninguna cultura*'.

6.35.- ... no sé si quiero **completar**...

The participant has made a *semantic extension*, as the English term *complete* is polysemous meaning both complete (as in complete a form), in Spanish *completar/rellenar*, and *finish*, in Spanish *terminar*. The speaker has opted for the inappropriate term.

6.36.-...*no sé si quiero completar, or ...*

The participant has made an *unintentional language switch* or a *borrowing* by using the English term *or*.

6.37.- *Creo que prefería los **negocios extranjeros**.*

The speaker has used a *collocational transfer* by using two words that very frequently co-occur in English ‘*foreign affairs*’. He has maintained that combination in Spanish when he should have said ‘*negocios/relaciones internacionales*’ instead of ‘*negocios extranjeros*’.

6.38.- ...*necesitaría hacer para un **degree** ...*

The participant has made an *unintentional language switch* or a *borrowing* by using the English term *degree*.

6.39.-*Un factoría, una **farm** ...*

The participant has made an *unintentional language switch* or a *borrowing* by using the English term *farm*.

6.40.- *Creo que él trabaja en, o **posible** ...*

The speaker has made a *calque* by translating the English adverb *possibly* for the Spanish adjective *possible*. It is in fact a calque although the participant has mistaken the type of word, as he should have said *posiblemente*. I believe the similarity of the English adverb with the Spanish adjective have led him to make such mistake.

6.41.- ...*en general mis rodillas no son muy **buenas**...*

The participant has made a *calque* by translating the English word *good* (as in ‘*my knees aren’t good*’), for *buenas*. Yet, in Spanish, we would not have used the term *buenas*, we would have said *fuertes*.

6.42.- ...*me gusta practicar deportes para, solo **para divertido***.

The speaker has used a *collocational transfer* by combining two words that frequently co-occur in English- ‘*for fun*’. The participant has maintained that combination - preposition+adjective - in Spanish leading to mistake. The correct combination in Spanish would have been ‘*para divertirme*’ – preposition+verb.

6.43.- *No, siempre era una función de **transportación***.

The speaker has produced a *coinage of new word*, or, what is the same, a *lexical invention*. The term *transportación* does not exist in Spanish. He seems to have created this word over the basis of the English term *transportation*.

6.44.- ...*muchas personas que dicen que les gusta un equipo no **miran** muchos de los (partidos)...*

The speaker has made a *calque*, as he has translated the English term *watch* for the Spanish word *miran*, when he should have used the term *ven*. In Spanish, we use the verb *ver* rather than *mirar*, to refer to the action of watching games.

6.45.- ...*para mí no es un razón **para gustar** un equipo*.

The speaker has used a *collocational transfer* by using two words that very frequently co-occur in English when using the infinitive form of a verb - ‘*to like*’. In Spanish, we would not have used an infinitive form; instead, we would have said ‘*para que te guste*’.

6.46.- *El equipo de fútbol Americano los **Greenbay Packers***.

The name of the American football team has been pronounced in English and therefore, the speaker has made a *borrowing*.

6.47.- ...*me gusto los **Red Skins**...*

The participant has made an *unintentional language switch* or a *borrowing* by using the English name of his favorite baseball team pronounced in English.

6.48.- ...*Red Socks de **Washington D.C.***

The participant has made an *unintentional language switch* or a *borrowing* by using the name of the US Capital, Washington D.C. pronounced in English.

6.49.- ...*me gustaba los **cuarenta y nueve*** ...

The speaker has made a *calque* by translating the name of the football team ‘*Forty niners*’ literally into Spanish.

6.50.-...*los **Forty Niners***...

The participant has made a *borrowing* by saying the name of the football team in English. It is the right thing to do, but for a Spaniard to understand he should try to pronounce it with a Spanish accent.

6.51.- ... *los **Forty Niners** de **San Francisco***...

The participant has made a *borrowing* by saying the name of the American city with an English pronunciation.

6.52.-... *Los **The** Packers*...

In this case, the speaker has made a *borrowing* by using the English term *the*. He had already translated the article into the Spanish – *los* – so it is unnecessary to use it again in English.

6.53.-... *sus **quarterback** que* ...

The participant has made an *unintentional language switch* or a *borrowing* by using the English term *quarterback*.

6.54.-...*que tenían **por muchos años***...

The combination of words *por muchos años* appears to be a *collocational transfer* of the terms that frequently co-occur in English *for + period of time*. The speaker has used the English combination when speaking Spanish, when he should have used *durante + period of time*.

6.55.-...*es todo un **nuevo equipo***.

The participant has made a *collocational transfer* as he has maintained the English collocation adjective+noun when speaking Spanish. This collocation sometimes occurs in Spanish but in this context, it would not be used in this order. Naturally speaking the order would be noun+adjective (*equipo nuevo*).

6.56.-...*son todos rotos*...

The verbal form *son* is inappropriate in this statement, as the speaker should have used *están*. This is the result of a *semantic extension*, as the English verb *be* is linked to two different concepts in Spanish: *ser* and *estar*. The speaker has chosen the term that does not correspond with the correct lexical item in Spanish.

6.57.-...*son todos rotos*...

The participant has made a *calque* by translating the word *broken* for *rotos*, when in this context, the appropriate word would have been *destrozados*.

6.58.-*Todos porque tienen walkers*...

The speaker has made an *unintentional language switch* or a *borrowing* by using the English term *walkers*.

6.59.- *No sé qué ocurrió, su brazo está roto*...

The participant has made a *collocational transfer* as he has maintained the English collocation possessive adjective+noun referring to a part of the body when speaking Spanish. This collocation very rarely occurs in Spanish and never in this context. The appropriate way of saying this would have been '*se rompió el brazo*'.

6.60.-*Sí, por UPS*...

The speaker has made an *unintentional language switch* or a *borrowing* by pronouncing the acronym in English.

6.61.-...*Amazon dot com*...

The speaker has made an *unintentional language switch* or a *borrowing* by saying the internet website in English.

6.62.-*Amazon en los Estados Unidos tiene **todo** **quenecesitas**...*

The participant has made a *collocational transfer* as he has maintained the English collocation *all that you need* when speaking Spanish.

6.63.-...***por toda vida**...*

The combination of words *por toda vida* appears to be a *collocational transfer* of the terms that frequently co-occur in English *for + period of time*. The speaker has used the English combination when speaking Spanish, when he should have used *durante+ period of time*.

6.64.-...***sibuscas para**...*

The participant has made a *collocational transfer* as he has maintained the English collocation *look for* by saying *buscas para* when speaking Spanish.

6.65.- ...*tienen todas las cosas **por todo un año**...*

The combination of words *por todo un año* appears to be a *collocational transfer* of the terms that frequently co-occur in English *for + period of time*. The speaker has used the English combination when speaking Spanish, when he should have used *durante+ period of time*.

6.66.- ...*hace dos años **estaba** el invierno...*

The verbal form *estaba* is inappropriate in this statement, as the speaker should have used *era*. This is the result of a *semantic extension*, as the English verb *be* is linked to two different concepts in Spanish: *ser* and *estar*. The speaker has chosen the term that does not correspond with the correct lexical item in Spanish.

6.67.-*Creo que es **Google**...*

The speaker has made an *unintentional language switch* or a *borrowing* by pronouncing the name of the web searcher in English.

6.68.- ...*toda la gente tienen **laptops**...*

The speaker has made an *unintentional language switch* or a *borrowing* by using the English term *laptops*.

6.69.- ...*muchas compañía no necesitan llevar un traje, es más casual*.

The speaker has used a *false cognate*. *Casual* in English means *informal wear*. However, in Spanish, it means *by chance*.

6.70.-...*estaban jugando Flappy Bird*...

The speaker has made an *unintentional language switch* or a *borrowing* saying the name of the game in his L1.

6.71.- ...*están escuchando a una presentación or, o qué*...

The participant has made an *unintentional language switch* or a *borrowing* by using the English term *or*.

6.72.-...*cuando mis compañeros y yo vamos a la escuela, o al restaurante*...

The speaker has made a *semantic extension*, the origin of which is the English term *school*. The word *school* is polysemous as it refers to learning centers of different levels, from *pre-school*, through *secondary school*, *high school* and university, which in Spanish are referred to by using different words '*escuela, colegio and facultad*'. The participant should have used the term *facultad* rather than *escuela*.

6.73.- ...*más o menos, porque con la, el internet puedes conectar*...

The participant is making a *collocational transfer*, as he is maintaining the combination of words that occur in his L1, *the internet*, when speaking his L2. Yet, in Spanish, the definite article is not used before the word *internet*.

6.74.- *Puedes ir solo si completes un curso*...

The participant has made a *semantic extension*, as the English term *complete* is polysemous meaning both *complete* (as in *complete a form*), in Spanish *completar/rellenar*, and *finish*, in

Spanish *terminar*. The speaker has opted for the inappropriate term, as he should have used the verb *terminar*.

6.75a.- *Ahora tengo, **en lunes** voy a tener...*

The participant is making a *collocational transfer*, as he is maintaining the combination of words that occur in his L1, *on Monday*, when speaking his L2. Yet, in Spanish, the preposition *on* is not used before the days of the week, the definite article is used instead.

6.75b.- *Sí, pero soy... mis amigos dicen que soy **antiguo**.*

The speaker has produced a *semantic extension*, as the English word *old* is polysemous because it can refer to people who have lived a long time (*viejo* in Spanish) and also, to objects which have been around for a long time (*antiguo* in Spanish). The participant has chosen the wrong term, as he should have said *viejo*.

6.76.- *...todas las personas de mi edad han **completado** la Universidad.*

*Todos quieren **completar** la escuela.*

The participant has made a *semantic extension*, as the English term *complete* is polysemous meaning both complete (as in complete a form), in Spanish *completar/rellenar*, and *finish*, in Spanish *terminar*. The speaker has opted for the inappropriate term, as he should have used the verb *terminar*.

6.77.- *Es bueno para mí porque he **experimentado**...*

The speaker has produced a *coinage of a new word*, or what is also known as a *lexical invention*. He has blended the properties of the English verb *experience* with the suffix ‘*ado*’ used in the formation of the past participle of the Spanish verbs finished in ‘*ar*’, thus creating a new word.

6.78.- *Cuando dije a mis amigos que vaya a ir a España **por un semestre**...*

The combination of words *por un semestre* appears to be a *collocational transfer* of the terms that frequently co-occur in English *for + period of time*. The speaker has used the English combination when speaking Spanish, when he should have used *durante + period of time*.

6.79.-¿*Qué es el punto?*

The participant has made a *creation of a new expression* from the English question *What's the point?* When in Spanish we would have said *Qué sentido tiene?* Rather than *Qué es el punto?*

6.80.- *Well, he hecho muchos amigos...*

The participant has made an *unintentional language switch* or a *borrowing* by using the English term *well*.

6.81.- *He hecho muchos amigos de los programas...*

The speaker has made a *semantic extension*, as the English word *program* is polysemous because it may be used to refer to a *program* as well as to a *course*. Yet, in Spanish, there are two different terms that refer to these ideas *programa* and *curso* and the speaker should have chosen the second term.

6.82.- *Este fin de semana pasado en Dublin...*

The participant has made an *unintentional language switch* or a *borrowing*. The speaker has used the term with an English pronunciation, thus, making it difficult for Spanish speakers to understand.

6.83.- *Conocí tres o cuatro personas un noche y en lunes...*

The participant is making a *collocational transfer*, as he is maintaining the combination of words that occur in his L1, *on Monday*, when speaking his L2. Yet, in Spanish, the preposition *on* is not used before the days of the week, the definite article is used instead.

6.84.- *...en lunes, en el mañana, en la mañana...*

The participant is making a *collocational transfer*, as he is maintaining the combination of words that occur in his L1, *in the morning*, when speaking his L2. Yet, in Spanish, the preposition *en* is not used before the part of the day; we use the preposition *por* instead.

6.85.- *...en cinco minutos somos mejores amigos*

The participant is making a *collocational transfer*, as he is maintaining the combination of words that occur in his L1, *best friends*, when speaking his L2. Yet, in Spanish, we would say *buenos amigos*.

6.86.- ...*estamos en el programa que, **you know**, no es necesario que somos amigos...*

The speaker has made an *unintentional language switch* or *borrowing* from his L1.

6.87.- ...*necesitas personas para **viajar con**...*

The speaker is making a *collocational transfer* as he is maintaining the combination of words that frequently co-occur in his L1 –*travel with*, and not only does he maintain this co-occurrence but he also ends the sentence in a preposition, which is very common in English but never occurs in Spanish. When speaking Spanish, we would have said ‘*necesitas personas con las que viajar*’.

6.88.-...*o **hablar con**...*

The speaker is once again making a *collocational transfer* as he is maintaining the combination of words that frequently co-occur in his L1 – *talk with/to*, and not only does he maintain this co-occurrence but he also ends the sentence in a preposition, which is very common in English but never occurs in Spanish. When speaking Spanish, we would have said ‘*necesitas personas con las que hablar*’.

6.89.- ...*y ellos **también** no pueden...*

The participant has made a *calque* by translating the English expression ‘...*and they, also, cannot...*’ literally into Spanish. He should have said ‘*y ellos tampoco pueden*’, as we cannot join the term *también* with a negative statement.

6.90.- ...*quiero **aprender sobre** la cultura...*

The speaker has made a *subcategorization transfer* because he has used a prepositional object instead of a nominal object, as he should have – *aprender la cultura*.

4.2.7.- Participant 7 (P7)

7.1.- *En el colegio aprendí un poco de esp, **well**, no.*

*...**well**, vivo en el medio.*

The term *well* is an *unintentional language switch* to the speaker's L1.

7.2.- *En la Universidad nunca he **tomadoun** clase en español.*

The verb *tomar*, in this context, is a *semantic extension* of the English term *take*, which is polysemous and is used to talk about following a course, spending time, transporting from one place to another.... In Spanish, the right verb, in this case, is *ir a*.

7.3.- *...quiero visitar más **places**...*

The term *place* is an *unintentional language switch* to the speaker's L1.

7.4.- *...quiero visitar más places, **I mean**...*

The sentence *I mean* is an *unintentional language switch or borrowing* of the speaker's L1.

7.5.- *Mis padres viven en la costa, **so** vivo cerca de la playa.*

*Creo que el tiempo es similar a Florida, **so**, cuando...*

The word *so* is a *borrowing* of the speaker's L1.

7.6.- *Mi impresión es un país muy bonita,**or**, bonito.*

*Por eso estoy, **or**, la diferencia...*

*La gente en las ciudades muy grandes, la gente, **or**, me parece...*

*...la gente son más distantes que las ciudades, **or**, **or**, los pueblos pequeños.*

*...cada domingo tenemos, **or**, sí, tenemos una cena.*

In these five cases, the term *or* is an *unintentional language switch* to the speaker's L1.

7.7.- *Es muy **diferente que** viviendo en los Estados Unidos.*

*Las personas son, sí, son **diferentes que** las personas ¿hispanicos?*

The terms *diferente que* are the result of a *collocational transfer*, as the speaker has maintained the combination of words that conventionally co-occur in his L1, *different than* (The adjective *different* is often followed by *from*, *than*, or chiefly British *to*) (*Merriam Webster Dictionary*). In Spanish, we would say: *Es muy diferente a vivir en los Estados Unidos*.

7.8.- *Es muy diferente **que** **viviendo** en los Estados Unidos.*

The use of the gerund, *viviendo*, is the result of a *collocational transfer*, as the speaker has maintained the combination of words that co-occur in his L1, preposition + gerund. In Spanish, we would use an infinitive instead and would say: *Es muy diferente a vivir en los Estados Unidos*.

7.9.- *Y antes de venirse a España no **creo** que sobre la diferencia contra España y los Estados Unidos.*

The participant has made a *semantic extension* of the English verb *think*. This word is polysemous and is linked to several concepts: *to believe that something is true*, *to have an opinion about someone or something* and *to form or have (a thought) in one's mind* (*Merriam Webster*). The verb *creer* is linked to the first concept of the word in English; in the second case, we would use the verb *pensar* or *considerar*; and in the third, we would use *pensar*. In this case, the speaker should have chosen the second concept rather than the first.

7.10.- *Y antes de venirse a España no **creo** que **sobre** la diferencia contra España y los Estados Unidos.*

The words *creo sobre* is the result of a *collocational transfer* from the speaker's L1. The participant has maintained the combination of words that conventionally co-occur in English, *think about*, when speaking Spanish. The appropriate combination in Spanish is *pensar en*.

7.11.-...*en España hace **muy frío**.*

The participant has made a *collocational transfer* as she has maintained the two words that conventionally co-occur in English, *very cold*. In Spanish, on the other hand, we do not intensify the adjective *frío*, we quantify it, by saying *mucho*.

7.12.- *Las personas son diferentes que las personas ¿hispánicos?*

The term *hispánicos* is a *calque* of the English term *Hispanics*. According to the RAE when talking about individuals the appropriate term is *hispano/hispanos*.

7.13.- *Pero Madrid es la ciudad muy **larga**.*

The word *larga* is a *false cognate* of the English term *large*. *Large* means *great in size or amount* (Merriam Webster), whereas, *larga* means *long*. The speaker should have used the adjective *grande* instead.

7.14.- *...la gente en los ciudades muy grandes, la gente, me parece, la **gente son** más...*

The speaker has made a *collocational transfer* as she has maintained the words that conventionally co-occur in her L1, *people are*. The noun *people* is plural in English yet, singular in Spanish. Therefore, she should have said *la gente es*.

7.15.- ***How can I say this?***

The participant has made *aborrowing* from English by asking this question.

7.16.- *La gente ayuda muchísimo para comprender y también **arreglar** mis... Lo siento, algunas cosas que hablo.*

The term *arreglar* is the result of a *calque* from the speaker's L1. She would have liked to have said: *People help a lot to try to understand and also fix (correct) some of the things I say (mistakes)*. She has literally translated the word *fix* into Spanish when the most appropriate way to say that would have been to use the verb *corregir*.

7.17.- *...quiero hacer perfectamente **or**, se, **or**, estoy frustrada...*

*Pero esta, **or**, es mal cosa...*

*...que yo se, **or**, me convertir, **or**, no.*

...depende de la situación es mala, **or**, es así así.

In these six cases, the term *or* is an *unintentional language switch* to the speaker's L1.

7.18.-*Esmal pero...*

The adjective *mal* in this statement is the result of a *calque* from the speaker's L1. In English, he would have said it's bad but... However, he should have said *Es malo pero...* as the adjective *mal* precedes a noun and when there is no noun we must use the adjective *malo*.

7.19.-*No, es bueno to commit, (wait), repite.*

The use of the infinitive form of the verb *to commit* is an *unintentional language switch* to the speaker's L1.

7.20.-*No, es bueno to commit, (wait), repite.*

The term *wait* is an *unintentional language switch* or *borrowing* of the speaker's L1.

7.21.- *Me parece es bien cometer errores.*

The speaker has made a *semantic extension*, as the verb *to be* is polysemous and means both 'ser' and 'estar' and the speaker should have used the verb 'estar' rather than 'ser'.

7.22.- *Pero, es mal cosa que yo...*

No, estoy, es mal cosa que yo estoy frustrada...

In both cases, the use of this sentence is the result of a *calque* of the English sentence *it's a bad thing*. The speaker has literally translated it into Spanish when she should have said *está mal*.

7.23.- *No, estoy, es mal cosa que yo estoy frustrada cuando comito errores.*

The term *comito* is a *coinage of a new word* based on the English verb *commit*, which is spelt with an 'i' rather than an 'e', as it is in Spanish.

7.24.- *Ahora hablo con mis amigas in español.*

The use of the preposition *in* is an *unintentional language switch* to the speaker's L1.

7.25.- ...quiero **tomar** una clase en español.

The verb *tomar*, in this context, is a *semantic extension* of the English term *take*, which is polysemous and is used to talk about following a course, spending time, transporting from one place to another.... In Spanish, the right verb, in this case, is *ir a*.

7.26.-Sí, **es** muy bien.

The speaker has made a *semantic extension*, as the verb *to be* is polysemous and means both ‘*ser*’ and ‘*estar*’ and the speaker should have used the verb ‘*estar*’ rather than ‘*ser*’.

7.27.- ...porque las personas **son** frustradas con...

The speaker has made a *semantic extension* as the verb *to be* is polysemous and means both ‘*ser*’ and ‘*estar*’ and the speaker should have used the verb ‘*estar*’ rather than ‘*ser*’.

7.28.- ...porque las personas son frustradas con el gobierno, con, **porque** el paro.

The term *porque* is a *calque* of the English word *because*. When speaking English, the speaker would have said ‘*people are frustrated with the government because of unemployment*’. Whereas, in Spanish we would use the preposition *por* instead.

7.29.- ...la gente **son** muy frustradas con el gobierno.

The speaker has made a *semantic extension* as the verb *to be* is polysemous and means both ‘*ser*’ and ‘*estar*’ and the speaker should have used the verb ‘*estar*’ rather than ‘*ser*’.

7.30.- Con este bicicleta, yo monto en la ciudad **por** diver, ¿divertrise?, **por** divertir.

The speaker has made the same *semantic extension* of the preposition *for*. The preposition *for* has several meanings and may be translated into Spanish for: *a, para, por, durante*... The participant has chosen an inappropriate preposition as he should have opted for the preposition *para*, rather than *por*.

7.31.- Un hombre me **parece como** Derek Jeetter...

The verbal form *parece como* is a *collocational transfer* whose origin is the combination of words *looks like*, which conventionally co-occur in English. In Spanish, we would say *se parece a*, rather than *se parece como*.

7.32a.- No *sé* mucho, no *conozco* mucho **sobre** baseball.

The combination of words *sé sobre* is the result of a *collocational transfer* whose origin is the combination of words *know about*, which conventionally co-occur in the speaker's L1. In Spanish we would say *sé de*.

7.32b.- No *sé* mucho, no **conozco** mucho **sobre** baseball.

No **conozco** nada **sobre** el fútbol americano.

The verbal form *conozco sobre* is a *subcategorization transfer*, as the verb *conocer*, in Spanish, does not require a prepositional object, as it does in English (*know about*), but is followed by a nominal object. Therefore, we would say *no conozco el baseball mucho*, and *no conozco el futbol americano nada*; or else we would change the verb *conocer* for the verb *saber* and say: *no sé mucho de baseball* and *no sé nada de fútbol americano*.

7.33.- Me gusta baloncesto pero **mirar** **baseball** no es interesante para mí.

The verb *mirar* is not used in Spanish to refer to a game, we use: *ver un partido*. The speaker has maintained the English conventional combination of words, *watch a game* while speaking Spanish. Therefore, he has made a *collocational transfer*.

7.34.-...y **Florida**.

The speaker has made a *borrowing* of the name of the state, as she has produced it totally in English. In Spanish, the state has the same name yet, the pronunciation is Spanish.

7.35.- Pero no **conozco** nada sobre el futbol Americano.

The choice of the verb *conocer* is a *semantic extension* of the English verb *know*, which is linked to several concepts: to have (information of some kind) in your mind; to understand (something); to have learned (something, as a skill or a language) (Merriam Webster). The

first case would correspond to the Spanish verb *saber*; the second to *comprender*; and the third to *conocer*. Consequently, the speaker should have opted for *saber* and not *conocer*.

7.36.- No tengo **ninguna idea** sobre el deporte.

The words *ninguna idea* are a *collocational transfer* as these two words conventionally co-occur in English, any idea (any+singular noun). However, in Spanish the combination which occurs is *ni idea* rather than *ninguna idea*.

7.37.- No tengo ninguna **idea** sobre el deporte.

The combination *idea sobre* is the result of a *collocational transfer* of the English: *any idea about...* The speaker has maintained this combination of words in Spanish, while she should have said: *ni idea de ese deporte*.

7.38.-**So**, mi idea sobre...

The word *so* is a *borrowing* of the speaker's L1.

7.39.- Este **structura** es un pieza de arte.

The term *structura* is a *coinage of a new word* based on the English term *structure*. The speaker has maintained the 's' as the opening letter of the word, while, in Spanish, the word is spelt and pronounced with an initial 'e', *estructura*.

7.40.- ...para ver la pintura, or, que, or, las cosas en, **in**, este...

The word *in* is an *unintentional language switch* into English.

7.41.- ...para ver la pintura, **or**, que, **or**, las cosas en, in, este...

...pueden inventar las cosas nuevas, **or** para los departamentos diferentes.

¡Wait! ¿En mi vida? **Or**, wait...

...el caimán en el césped, **or**, en el agua.

Solo en las piscinas, **or**, la playa.

The word *or* is an *unintentional language switch* into English.

7.42.- No me gusta trabajar en el sitio, en el **cuadros**...

The word *cuadros* is a *conceptual lexical invention* based on the word *cubicle* (a work space in a large office with a desk that is usually surrounded by low walls) (*Merriam Webster*). A *cubicle* has a square shape and therefore, the speaker has created the term based on the shape of the concept of the original noun.

7.43.- No me gusta trabajar en el sitio, en el cuadros, no, **so**, me gusta el foto.

So, yo puedo andar...

...el sitio, **so**, por eso no me gusta.

The word *so* is an *unintentional language switch* into English.

7.44.- ...no hay otra persona en la, en el **erea**...

The term *erea* is a *lexical invention* based on the sound of the English word *area*.

7.45.- ...pero soy una persona inver, inverto, **wait**, introvertida, ¡sí!

¡**Wait!** ¿En mi vida? Or, **wait**...

The word *wait* is an *unintentional language switch* into English.

7.46.- ¡**Skydiving!**

The word *skydiving* is an *unintentional language switch* into English.

7.47.- Me gustaría hacerlo pero **temo** por altura.

The word *temo*, in this context, is the result of a *calque* of the English verb *fear/be afraid of*, which, in some contexts, is translated for the verb *temer*, as the speaker has done; yet, in others, such as in this case, should be translated for *dar miedo*. We use *temer* when we are going to give some negative information to somebody but *tener miedo* when the concept is *to fear*. As the speaker means that she fears heights, the appropriate translation would be *tener miedo*.

7.48.- Me gustaría hacerlo pero **temo por** altura.

The verb *temo* followed by a prepositional object is a *subcategorization transfer*, whose origin is the verb *be afraid*, which is followed by a prepositional object, in English. In Spanish, however, it is followed by a nominal object, as we say *me dan miedo las alturas*.

7.49.- *Porque mi familia es muy importante a mí.*

The speaker has made a *semantic extension* of the English preposition *for*, which in Spanish can be expressed by using any of the following prepositions *por*, *para*, *durante*... The participant has chosen the wrong preposition as he should have said *para* rather than *a*.

7.50.- *Es muy difícil para **muvarse** de los Estados Unidos...*

The verbal form *muvarse* is a *lexical invention* based on the pronunciation of the English verb *move*. The speaker has created a verb of the first conjugation (verbs finished in –ar) and has added the suffix –se used to create a reflexive verb. The strategy has been very good but the verb is actually spelt with an ‘o’, *moverse*.

7.51.- *...porque en mi segunda vez **afuera de** mi familia...*

The words *afuera de* are a *collocational transfer* based on the English combination of words *away from*. In Spanish, the words that conventionally co-occur are *lejos de* rather than *afuera de*.

7.52.- *...Gainsville...está en el norte. Dos horas **afuera de** Orlando.*

The words *afuera de* are a *collocational transfer* based on the English combination of words *away from*, as in ‘Two hours away from Orlando’. In Spanish, this concept would be expressed differently, we would say ‘a dos horas de Orlando’.

4.2.8.- Participant 8 (P8)

8.1.- *Porque mi padre trabaja mucho, **or**, tabajaba mucho...*

*Trabajo con, **or**, quiero trabajar con...*

...sí, porque vivo, **or**, vivimos juntos...

...porque vivías en, **or**, vivía en un residencia...

The term *or* is an *unintentional language switch* from the speaker's L1.

8.2.- ...quiero trabajar con los niños con deshaba ¿**deshabalidades**?

The term *deshabalidades* is a *lexical invention* based on the English word *disabilities*. The speaker has created the word by joining the first syllables of the word in her L1 with the last syllables of the root word in her L2, that is, *disabi*+*lidades*.

8.3.- ¿Sí? Y es **mejor para** hablar español...

Mejor para is a *subcategorization transfer*. The participant has used an adjective followed by a prepositional object when there is no need for it. Consequently, we would say, *es mejor hablar español*.

8.4.- Aquí **está** muy, mucho calor.

The verbal *está* is a *calque* of the English verbal form *is*. However, in Spanish we use the verb *hacer* to talk about the atmospheric temperature.

8.5.- Pero en Vermont **es** siete grados...

The verbal *es* is a *calque* of the English verbal form *is*. However, in Spanish we use the verb *hacer* to talk about the atmospheric temperature.

8.6.- Pero en Vermont es siete grados, pero en **Fahrenheit**.

The term *Fahrenheit* has been used as an *unintentional language switch or borrowing*. The speaker has used the term from his L1 when speaking in his L2. In Spanish, the same term is used to talk about the temperature scale used in the USA, Bahamas, Belize and Cayman Islands but the pronunciation is adapted to the Spanish language and the participant has given the English pronunciation to the term, which makes it incomprehensible for Spanish speakers.

8.7.-Es un poco **confusado**.

The word *confusado* is a *coinage of a new word* based on the English adjective *confused*, to which the speaker has added the suffix –ado, commonly used to form adjectives in Spanish.

8.8.- ...*porque la lengua es un poco difícil y el **accentos***.

The term *accentos* is a *coinage of a new word* based on the English noun *accents*, to which the speaker has added the suffix –o used to form masculine nouns in Spanish.

8.9.- *Porque todos mis profesores en escuelas son de el ¿**Sur de América**?*

The participant has made a *collocational transfer* by maintaining the combination of words that co-occur in English, *South America*, when speaking Spanish. In Spanish we say *América del Sur*.

8.10.- *Aquí sí, pero en mi **escuela** en los Estados Unidos no.*

*Vivía en un residencia por tres años, en mi **escuela**.*

The speaker has made a *semantic extension*, the origin of which is the English term *school*. The word *school* is polysemous as it refers to learning centers of different levels, from *pre-school*, through *secondary school*, *high school* and college, which in Spanish are referred to by using different words ‘*escuela*, *colegio* and *facultad*’. The participant should have used the term *facultad* rather than *escuela*.

8.11.- *Porque tengo un clase **porun hora**...*

*Vivía en un residencia **portres años**...*

In these cases, the use of the term *por* is a *collocational transfer* of the terms that frequently co-occur in English *for + period of time*. The speaker has used the English combination when speaking Spanish, when he should have used *durante + period of time*.

8.12.- ...*pero a veces una persona **conoce** que no soy español...*

The choice of the verb *conocer* is a *semantic extension* of the English verb *know*, which is linked to several concepts: to have (information of some kind) in your mind; to understand (something); to have learned (something, as a skill or a language) (*Merriam Webster*). The

first case would correspond to the Spanish verb *saber*; the second to *comprender*; and the third to *conocer*. Consequently, the speaker should have opted for *saber* and not *conocer*.

8.13.-No, sí, es **menos que** pienso.

Menos que is the result of a *collocational transfer*. Its origin is the English common co-occurrence *less than*, which in this case should have been expressed in Spanish with the collocation *menos de*.

8.14.-Con **un otro** persona.

The participant has made a *collocational transfer*, as she has maintained the collocation of the English indefinite article *an* with the adjective *other*, which always co-occur in her L1 as an indefinite singular adjective. The equivalent Spanish adjective does not require the use of the indefinite article *an/un*. She should have said *otra*.

8.15.- ...porque no sé la familia antes.

The choice of the verb *saber* is a *semantic extension* of the English verb *know*, which is linked to several concepts: to have (information of some kind) in your mind; to understand (something); to have learned (something, as a skill or a language) (*Merriam Webster*). The first case would correspond to the Spanish verb *saber*; the second to *comprender*; and the third to *conocer*. Consequently, the speaker should have opted for *conocer* and not *saber*.

8.16.- Necesito **mirar la película** *El Laberinto del Fauno*.

The speaker has made a *collocational transfer*, as she has maintained the English combination of words *watch a movie* in Spanish, when she should have used the verb *ver*. In Spanish, we use the verb *ver* rather than *mirar*, to refer to the action of watching movies.

8.17.- Porque es un **tiempo** mala en la Historia.

The use of the noun *tiempo* is a *calque* from English. The speaker has literally translated the sentence: *It's a bad time in History*, when she should have said: *es un momento/una época malo/a en la Historia*.

8.18.- Pero sé algunas personas le gusta Franco.

The choice of the verb *saber* is a *semantic extension* of the English verb *know*, which is linked to several concepts: to have (information of some kind) in your mind; to understand (something); to have learned (something, as a skill or a language) (*Merriam Webster*). The first case would correspond to the Spanish verb *saber*; the second to *comprender*; and the third to *conocer*. Consequently, the speaker should have opted for *conocer* and not *saber*.

8.19.- ...*las personas son un poco **errogante***.

The word *errogante* is a *lexical invention*. The speaker has based the creation of this adjective on the pronunciation of the term in English and has therefore, produced this word with an initial ‘e’, while, in Spanish, the term is spelt with an initial ‘a’.

8.20.- *En **Munich**, pero es mi familia...*

The word *Munich* is a borrowing of the speaker’s L1 as she has pronounced it as she would while speaking English. This makes the word non-understandable for Spanish speakers.

8.21.-*En Munich, pero es mi familia, **so**...*

The word *so* is an *unintentional language switch* to the speaker’s L1.

8.22.- *¿Cómo se dice? Ah, ¿**friendly**?*

The word *friendly* is an *unintentional language switch* to the speaker’s L1.

8.23.- *Porque todo **es**, no, está cerca de mí.*

The speaker has made a *semantic extension* as the verb *to be* is polysemous and means both ‘*ser*’ and ‘*estar*’. The speaker should have used the verb ‘*estar*’ rather than ‘*ser*’, as *she, in fact, has done immediately afterwards*.

8.24.- *Necesito porque mi **escuela** es cuatro horas.*

*Sí, mi **escuela** en Vermont es cuatro horas...*

*...y es similar mi biblioteca en mi **escuela**...*

The speaker has made a *semantic extension*, the origin of which is the English term school. The word *school* is polysemous as it refers to learning centers of different levels, from *pre-school*, through *secondary school*, *high school* and college, which in Spanish are referred to by using different words ‘*escuela*, *colegio* and *facultad*’. The participant should have used the term *facultad* rather than *escuela*.

8.25.- *Necesito porque mi escuela es cuatro horas.*

...mi escuela en Vermont es cuatro horas....

The speaker has made two *semantic extensions*, as the verb *to be* is polysemous and means both ‘*ser*’ and ‘*estar*’. The speaker should have used the verb ‘*estar*’ rather than ‘*ser*’ in both cases.

8.26.- *Sí, ah, el semana pasada **pienso**.*

The participant has made a *semantic extension* of the English verb *think*. This word is polysemous and is linked to several concepts: *to believe that something is true*, *to have an opinion about someone or something* and *to form or have (a thought) in your mind* (*Merriam Webster*). The verb *creer* is linked to the first concept of the word in English; in the second case, we would use the verb *pensar* or *considerar*; and in the third, we would use *pensar*. In this case, the speaker should have chosen the first concept rather than the second.

8.27.- *What did we do?*

With this question the speaker has made an *unintentional language switch*.

8.28.- *Ah, un **memoria** que esto es cuando era niña mi papa enseño...*

*Recuerdo un **memoria** es mi mejor amiga...*

The use of the term *memory* in both sentences is the result of a *semantic extension* of the English noun *memory*, which is linked to several concepts: the power or process of remembering what has been learned, something that is remembered and, the things learned and kept in the mind (*Merriam Webster*). In Spanish, the first concept is ‘*memoria*’, the

second is ‘*recuerdo*’, and the third is also ‘*recuerdo*’. As the speaker is talking about things kept in her mind, she should have used the term *recuerdo* rather than *memoria*.

8.29.- *Mi papa enseñó cómo montar en bicicleta.*

The words *enseñó cómo* is a *collocational transfer* of words that conventionally co-occur in English *teach how*. The speaker has maintained that co-occurrence in her Spanish speech, when she should have said: *enseñó a montar...*

8.30.- *...pero me gusta el equipo de Yukon más mejor...*

The name *Yukon* is a *borrowing* from the speaker’s L1 as the pronunciation is English and therefore, very difficult for Spanish speakers to understand.

8.31.- *...pero me gusta el equipo de Yukon más mejor...*

The speaker has made a *collocational transfer* from the English sentence: I like the Yukon team much better (intensifier ‘*much*’+ comparative ‘*better*’). In Spanish, she has used a comparative ‘*más*’+ comparative ‘*mejor*’. The use of two comparative adjectives one immediately after the other is wrong in Spanish. She should have used only one comparative *más*, but not the second one, *mejor*.

8.32.-*No me gusta heights.*

The noun *heights* is a *borrowing* from the speaker’s L1.

4.2.9.- Participant 9 (P9)

9.1.- *...son mis amigos y desde ellos he oído mucho de la cultura...*

The speaker has made a *semantic extension* of the English preposition *from* which is linked to different concepts: used to indicate the starting point of a physical movement or action; used to indicate the place that something comes out of; used to indicate the place where someone lives or was born (*Merriam Webster*). The Spanish word for the first concept is

desde; and *de* for the second and third. As the participant is talking about the place or person that something comes out of, he should have used the preposition *de* rather than *desde*.

9.2.- *Y en Williams es muy normal **tomar** un semestre, o, pasar un semestre, en otro país...*

The verb *tomar*, in this context, is a *semantic extension* of the English term *take*, which is polysemous and is used to talk about spending time, to transport from one place to another.... In Spanish, the right verb is *pasar*, which is the verb that the speaker automatically uses to correct his error.

9.3.- *Y en Williams es muy normal tomar un semestre, o, pasar un semestre, en **otro país que** en los Estados Unidos.*

The speaker has made a *collocational transfer* of the English combination of words, *other than* - as in: *spend a semester in a country other than the USA*. Whereas, in Spanish we would have used the adjective + preposition, *diferente a*.

9.4.- *...decidí asistir a un programa de **Boston University**...*

The words *Boston University* are an *unintentional language switch*.

9.5.- *...decidí asistir a un programa de Boston University en Madrid para **establecer una reunión** con mis amigos españoles....*

The words *establecer una reunión* are a *calque* of the English ‘*set up a meeting*’. The speaker has literally translated the sentence into Spanish when he should have simply used the verb *reunirse*, by saying ‘*decidí asistir a un programa de la Universidad de Boston en Madrid para reunirme con mis amigos españoles*’.

9.6.- *...el principio de mi **interés de** España y **de** español...*

The use of the preposition *de* is a *collocational transfer* whose origin is the combination of the noun *interest*+ preposition *for/in* –meaning *concerning* - which the speaker has translated for *interés de*; while in Spanish, the combination is *interés por*.

9.7.- *Sí, sí, entre, o a parte de una estudia más grande...*

The combination of words, *a parte de*, is the result of a *creation of a new expression* which the speaker has based on the English expression, *as part of*. The speaker has mistranslated the word *as* for *a*, when he should have opted for *como* instead – *como parte de*.

9.8.- *...la empieza de la Guerra...*

The term *empieza*, as a noun, is a *lexical invention* based on the English noun *beginning*, which derives from the root verb *begin*. The speaker has created a noun in Spanish based on the verb that corresponds to the translation of *begin*, that is *empezar*. However, the term *empieza* is the third person singular of the present simple of the verb *empezar*, but cannot be used as a noun. The noun is formed from the verb *comenzar*, and is said *comienzo*.

9.9.- *...la empieza de la Guerra Mundial Dos...*

...España no tenía un impacto importante en la Guerra Mundial 2...

...estudian mucho, por supuesto, de la Guerra Mundial Dos...

The name *Guerra Mundial Dos* is a *calque* of the English name *World War II*, *World War 2*, or *World War Two*. In Spanish we call it *Segunda Guerra Mundial*.

9.10.- *No sé lo que dice sobre yo...*

This expression is the result of a *calque* of the English: *I don't know what it says about me*. The speaker has literally translated the words, when the sentence that would correspond to this English phrase would be: *No sé que impresión causa/da*.

9.11.- *Sí, yo sé. (Done twice)*

The short answer, *Sí, yo sé*, is a *calque* of the English, *Yes, I know*. In Spanish, we do not need to use the subject *yo* because the verbal form reveals the subject, but do use the object *lo*; so we say: *Sí, lo sé*.

9.12.- ...es posible que mi opinión fué fundado a razón de unas películas y **discusiones** con mis amigos españoles.

Antes de empezar mis estudios de Historia en general, tomaba **discusiones** con mis amigos...

Pero pienso que están teniendo una **discusión** para un club o algo.

The words *discusiones* and *discusión* are false cognates of the English term *discussion*. A *discussion* is a *conversation*, whereas, *discusión* means an *argument*. The speaker meant to use the term *conversaciones*.

9.13.- ...y **conocía** a Franco.

The choice of the verb *conocer* is a *semantic extension* of the English verb *know*, which is linked to several concepts: to have (information of some kind) in your mind; to understand (something); to have learned (something, as a skill or a language) (*Merriam Webster*). The first case would correspond to the Spanish verb *saber*; the second to *comprender*; and the third to *conocer*. Consequently, the speaker should have opted for *saber* and not *conocer*, as he is saying that he has information about Franco, not that he knew him personally.

9.14.- Porque en realidad, **más de todo**, es que tengo un año libre...

...**mas que todo**, para, por Madrid, específicamente, me gusta...

The speaker has made a *coinage of a new expression* based on the English expression: *more than anything*. He has literally translated the English expression into Spanish when there is a different way of saying this, which is: *ante todo*.

9.15.- ...porque después de **estudios universidades**...

...quería más de un año entre la conclusion de mis **estudios universidades**...

The words *estudios universidades* are the result of a *calque* of the English, *university studies*. The speaker has literally translated the term *university* for *universidades*, which would be right if it were a noun, but as, in this combination, it is an adjective the appropriate term in Spanish is *universitarios*.

9.16.-...trabajaba **por**un año.

In this case, the use of the term *por* is a *collocational transfer* of the terms that frequently co-occur in English *for* + *period of time*. The speaker has used the English combination when speaking Spanish, when he should have used *durante*+ *period of time*.

9.17.- ...trabajaba *por* un año en un bufete.... como **paralegal**...

The term *paralegal* could be a *borrowing* from English, yet, as the speaker has given it a Spanish pronunciation it will be deemed a *coinage of a new word*.

9.18.- ...trabajaba *por* un año en un bufete.... como *paralegal*, como un **asistente** de los abogados.

The word *asistente* is a *false cognate* of the English term *assistant*, which means a *helper*; whereas the Spanish word *asistente* is only used to refer to a person who helps in religious orders. The appropriate term would be *ayudante*.

9.19.- No me ayudarían a **aplicar** a las universidades.

...el examen necesario para su **aplicación** a las universidades...

No tenía tiempo para preparar otros partes de mi **aplicación**...

The term *aplicar* and, consequently, the noun *aplicación*, is a *deceptive cognate* of the English verb *apply*, and its corresponding noun *application*, which in this context mean: *to ask formally for something (such as a job, admission to a school, a loan, etc.) usually in writing (Merriam Webster)*; and the nominal form refers to the document which completes this action. Whereas, the Spanish verb *aplicar* means: *Poner algo sobre otra cosa o en contacto de otra cosa; Emplear, administrar o poner en práctica un conocimiento, medida o principio, a fin de obtener un determinado efecto o rendimiento en alguien o algo (DRAE)*. The appropriate Spanish terms are, the verb *solicitar* and the noun, *solicitud*.

9.20.- Quiero **tomar ventaja** de la oportunidad...

The terms *tomar ventaja* are a *collocational transfer* that the speaker has taken from the English words that conventionally co-occur, *take advantage*. He has translated this combination into Spanish, when he should have used the verb *aprovechar*.

9.21.- ...estaba preparando **por** un juicio...

The speaker has made a *semantic extension* of the English preposition *for*, which in Spanish can be expressed by using any of the following prepositions *por*, *para*, *adurante*. The participant has chosen the wrong preposition as he should have said *para*, rather than *por*

9.22.- ...y **a** mí muy importante...

The speaker has made a *semantic extension* of the English preposition *for*, which in Spanish can be expressed by using any of the following prepositions *por*, *para*, *a*, *durante*. The participant has chosen the wrong preposition as he should have said *para*, rather than *a*.

9.23.-...y no tenía tiempo para preparar..., para **tomar** el SAT,...

The verb *tomar* in this context is a *semantic extension* of the English term *take*, which is always used when speaking about courses or classes an individual attends or follows, and to exams an individual takes. In Spanish, the right verb is *hacer*.

9.24.- ...y no tenía tiempo para preparar..., para tomar el **SAT**,...

The acronym SAT is an unintentional language switch to the speaker's L1.

9.25.-...que es el examen necesario para su aplicación a las universidades y, **también**, no tenía tiempo para preparar otros partes de mi aplicación.

The participant has made a *calque* by translating the English expression ‘...and I, also, didn’t...’ literally into Spanish. He should have said ‘y tampoco tuve’, as we cannot join the term *también* with a negative statement.

9.26.- Sí, pero en **Los Estados**...

...el pescado aquí es más fresco que en **Los Estados**.

Hoy comí una manzana porque es la temporada par manzanas en **Los Estados**.

En Los Estados tenemos un tipo, no sé, de...

The name *Los Estados* is a *calque* of the English shortened name of the country: *The United States of America*, most commonly referred to as *The United States*, and, colloquially, as *The States*. The speaker has translated, in four occasions, the colloquial version of the name into Spanish, when, most certainly it will not be understood.

9.27.- ...*que el pescado, I mean, estoy seguro que es...*

The words *I mean* are an *unintentional language switch* into the speaker's L1.

9.28.- *En los Estados tenemos un tipo, no sé, de ¿agua melón?*

The terms *agua melón* are a *calque* of the English noun, *watermelon*. The speaker has literally translated the word and maintained the order of the words in Spanish.

9.29.- ...*también voy a enseñar inglés a los individuales en Madrid.*

The word *individuales*, in this case, is a *deceptive cognate* of the English noun *individual*, which refers to: being an individual or existing as an indivisible whole (Merriam Webster); while the Spanish word *individual/es* is an adjective which means: Perteneciente o relativo al individuo (DRAE). The speaker has used a *deceptive cognate* of the English noun *individual* when speaking Spanish, when this term does not exist as such.

9.30.- *Ya tengo dos, por seguro...*

The expression *tener por seguro* is a *collocational transfer* of the English co-occurrence of words, *for sure*. The English expression means that there is no doubt, while the Spanish combination of words *tener por seguro* means *to be assured*.

9.31.- ...*pienso que uno más estudiantes desde amigos...*

The speaker has made a *semantic extension* of the English preposition *from*, which in Spanish can be expressed with either of the following prepositions *de*, *desde*. The participant has chosen the wrong preposition as he should have said *de* rather than *desde*.

9.32.- *En aviones está bien, pero está bastante.*

The speaker has made a *semantic extension*, as the verb *to be* is polysemous and means both ‘*ser*’ and ‘*estar*’, and the speaker should have used the verb ‘*ser*’ rather than ‘*estar*’.

9.33.- *Pero el hombre a la derecha de la foto se llama Derek Theler y **dos semanas pasados** él jugó...*

The time expression *dos semanas pasados* is a *calque*. The speaker has literally translated the English, *two weeks ago*, when he should have said: *hace dos semanas*.

9.34.- *Porque **todo el país a él le gusta** mucho...*

This construction is a *calque* of the English sentence *The whole country likes him very much*. The speaker has not used the verb *gustar* properly in Spanish, as he has literally translated it from English. He has considered that *the whole country* is the subject, and *him* is the indirect object as it is in English. Whereas, in Spanish, it is the other way around, that is, *the whole country* is the indirect object and *he* is the subject.

The structure of the verb *gustar* is the following: Translated from NoIComprendo Language Services PDF

| Indirect Object | | In grammatical concordance with subject | |
|-----------------|------------|---|---------------|
| Optional | Compulsory | Verb | Subject |
| A mí, a tí... | me, te... | gusta, gustan, gustas | eso, esos, tú |

Therefore, the correct sentence in Spanish is:

A todo el país le gusta él

9.35.- *Porque en realidad, **más que todo**, es que tengo un año libre.*

*No sé exactamente, **más que todo**, para por Madrid...*

*Todo de su carrera, **más que todo**, él ha ganado....*

The speaker has made a *coinage of a new expression*, based on the English expression: *more than anything*. He has literally translated the English expression into Spanish when there is a different way of saying this, which is: *ante todo*.

9.36.- *Pero estoy refiriendo **más sobre** su peronalidad.*

The use of *más sobre* is a *collocational transfer*, based on the English combination of words, *more about/to*. In Spanish, this is not the conventional co-occurrence, in fact, we say *más a*.

9.37.- *Ha cambiado tres, hace tres días, **muvió** un apratamento nuevo...*

*...cerca de la zona de la Latina y tenía que **muver** mis cosas...*

Both terms, *muvió* and *muver*, are *coinages of a new word*. The speaker has created the infinitive of the verb *muver*, and also the tense that is called pretérito perfecto simple, *muvió*. The origin of this creation is the pronunciation of the verb *move* in English, the speaker has reproduced the same sound in Spanish.

9.38.- *No **importapara** mí, para manteenre la limpia de a casa.*

The speaker has made a *collocational transfer* based on the English co-occurrence of words: *matter to...* He has maintained such combination in Spanish, when he should have said: *No me importa*.

9.39.- *No he visto **papel de arena** en nuestro apartamento.*

The combination of words, *papel de arena*, is a *coinage of a new term*. The speaker has created this new noun by translating into Spanish the English noun *sandpaper*.

9.40.- *...pensaba un poco **de** comprar*

The speaker has made the same *semantic extension* of the preposition *about*, which has several meanings and may be translated into Spanish for: *sobre, de, acerca de, en...* The participant has chosen an inappropriate preposition as he should have opted for *en*, rather than *de*.

9.41.- *Es mejor para mis ejercicios, es mejor correr que **biciclar**.*

The lexical term *biciclar* is a *coinage of a new word*, based on the English verb *bicycle*. However, in Spanish, there is no such verb. The appropriate expression is *montar en bicicleta*.

9.42.-Sí, *yo sé*.

The speaker has made a *calque* of his L1: *I know*. However, in Spanish we rarely use the subject as the verbal form reveals the subject making it unnecessary.

9.43.- *Monté en un moto detrás de mi amigo, en tu, **en** su espalda*.

The use of the preposition *en* is a *semantic extension* of the English preposition *at*, which may be translated into Spanish by using several prepositions: *en, a...* The speaker has chosen the wrong term in Spanish, as by saying *en su espalda*, he is saying that he was riding on his back, rather than at his back. He should have opted for the preposition *a* instead.

9.44.-*Él es un poco loco*.

The verbal form *es* is inappropriate, as the speaker should have used *está*. This is the result of a *semantic extension*, as the English verb *be* is linked to two different concepts in Spanish: *ser* and *estar*.

9.45.- *Pienso que para los **aviones personales**...*

The speaker has made a *collocational transfer* of the English adjective + noun, *personal planes*. While, in Spanish, this combination is *aviones particulares*.

9.46.-*Se puede ver **Isla Larga***.

In this case, the speaker has made a *calque* of the English name, *Long Island*. He has literally translated it, when, in Spanish, the original name is used with a Spanish pronunciation.

4.2.10.- Participant 10 (P₁₀)

10.1.- *...que yo tengo que desarrollar para la **Yuniversity***.

The word *Yuniversidad* is a *lexical invention* based on the pronunciation of the English noun *university*. The pronunciation of the initial ‘u’ is that of a ‘y’ and the speaker has reproduced that same sound when speaking Spanish.

10.2.- Los **idias** es, a mí, es muy importante...

The word *idias* is a *lexical invention* based on the pronunciation of the English Word *idea*. The speaker has reproduced the English sound of the term when speaking Spanish.

10.3.- ...yo creo que la Filosofía te **enseña cómo** pensar.

The speaker has made a *subcategorization transfer*, which involves a verb that, in Spanish, requires a prepositional object and the participant has omitted it. He has reproduced the English structure: *teaches you how to think*, and has translated it literally. In Spanish, we could maintain the adverb, *cómo*, but we would still need the preposition *a*. The two options are: *enseñar a pensar* or *enseñar a cómo pensar*.

10.4.- Las aplicaciones de la Filosofía **son** basado en realidad.

The speaker has made a *semantic extension* as the verb *to be* is polysemous and means both ‘*ser*’ and ‘*estar*’ and the speaker should have used the verb ‘*estar*’ rather than ‘*ser*’.

10.5.- En mi opinion, **Filosofía** ense..., enseñar, enséñate a cómo pensar.

The speaker has made a *calque* of the English lack of use of a definite article before general nouns. Whereas, in Spanish, we always need to use the definite article even when speaking of item or ideas in general. The participant should have said: *la filosofía*.

10.6.- Entonces, es, **a** mí es muy importante...

The speaker has made a *semantic extension* of the English preposition *for*, which in Spanish can be expressed by using any of the following prepositions *para*, *por*, *durante*. The participant has chosen the wrong preposition as he should have said *para*, rather than *a*.

10.7.- ...tengo una tarjeta de **index**.

The term *index* is a *borrowing* of the speaker’s L1.

10.8.- *Lo siento, todo va a **ser** bien.*

The speaker has made a *semantic extension* as the verb *to be* is polysemous and means both ‘*ser*’ and ‘*estar*’ and the speaker should have used the verb ‘*estar*’ rather than ‘*ser*’.

10.9.-...***espero** que tuviera más tiempo aquí.*

The use of the verbal form, *espero*, is a *calque* of the English: *I wish (I had more time here)*. The speaker has translated the sentence into Spanish mistakenly as, in Spanish, we would not use this verb but would say: *me gustaría*.

10.10.-*Quizás yo voy a perder mis **habilidades**.*

The term *habilidades* is a *semantic extension* of the English word *skills*. The term refers to similar concepts, yet, in different fields: (1) the ability to use one's knowledge effectively and readily in execution or performance; (2) dexterity or coordination especially in the execution of learned physical tasks; and (3) a learned power of doing something competently: a developed aptitude or ability <language *skills*> (*Merriam Webster*). The first concept corresponds, in Spanish, to the term *capacidad*, the second to *habilidad*, and the third to *destreza*. The speaker was talking about linguistic skills, therefore, he should have chosen the term *destreza* rather than *habilidad*.

10.11.- ...*mi madre aquí en España me **dijo sobre** un instituto.*

The terms *dijo sobre* is a *collocational transfer* based on the English combination of words, *tell about*. In Spanish, however, these two words do not conventionally co-occur; we would either say *dijo de* or *habló de*.

10.12.- *Sí, a mí **lo** parece bien.*

The speaker has made a *calque* of the English sentence: *It seems right to me*. In English, the syntactic elements are as follows:

It seems right to me.

S

V

W.O.

I.O.

In Spanish, the syntactic elements are as follows:

| | | | |
|----------------|---------------|-------------|------|
| <u>A mí me</u> | <u>parece</u> | <u>bien</u> | |
| Opt. S | S | V | W.O. |

The speaker has translated the subject of the English sentence into Spanish for ‘lo’, when the subject is actually ‘I’ not ‘it’ as it is in English. Consequently, he should have said either, *Me parece bien* or *A mí me parece bien*.

10.13.-**Marketing**.

The word *marketing* is an *unintentional language switch* to the speaker’s L1.

10.14.- ...es fácil **arreglar** un plan para un nuevo producto.

The term *arreglar* is a *calque* of the English word, *fix* (*fix* or *set up a plan*). In Spanish, we would say *fijar/hacer/proponer*, rather than *arreglar*.

10.15.- Es **interesante para** hacer eso.

The words *interesante para* is a *subcategorization transfer* that involves an adjective and a prepositional object when, in Spanish, there is no need of a prepositional object. We say *interesante hacer*.

10.16.-Porque es un **grande** sistema.

The speaker has made a *calque* of the English adjective *large/big*, which in Spanish can be *grande* but can also be *gran*. If this adjective is placed before the noun we use *gran*, whereas if we opt for placing the adjective after the noun, we use *grande*. Therefore, the appropriate option here is *gran* rather than *grande*.

10.17.- Es **difícil para** memorizar todo de eso.

The words *difícil para* are a *subcategorization transfer* that involves an adjective followed by a prepositional object. In Spanish, there is no prepositional object required, as we say: *difícil memorizar*.

10.18.- Es difícil para memorizar **todo de** eso.

The terms *todo de* are a *collocational transfer*, based on the English conventional co-occurrence of words: *all of that*; although, *all that* is also right. The speaker has maintained the first combination in Spanish, when the preposition *de* is not used here.

10.19.-No, no, **mátame**.

The speaker has made a *calque* of the English expression: '*(it) kills me*'. He has translated it literally into Spanish with the result of an imperative sentence. To avoid this imperative use he should have placed the subject '*me*' before the verb, by saying: '*me mata*'.

10.20.- Sí claro, pero **en el mismo tiempo** estoy triste.

The participant has made a *calque* of the English expression: *at the same time*. He has literally translated the words, which has resulted in a meaningless construction. He should have said: *al mismo tiempo/a la vez*.

10.21.- ...no sé que **yo** voy a hacer.

The use of the subject *yo* is inappropriate in Spanish, as the verbal form indicates who the subject is. The speaker has made a *calque* of the English common practice of using a subject before every verb when it is not required, and even wrong in this case.

10.22.- ...voy a **ser** ayudando a...

The speaker has made a *semantic extension*, as the verb *to be* is polysemous and means both '*ser*' and '*estar*'. The speaker should have used the verb '*estar*' rather than '*ser*'.

10.23.- Ellos son **más viejos que** normal.

The combination of words, *viejos que*, is a *collocational transfer* that comes from the comparative: *older than*. The speaker has maintained the English conventional combination of words when speaking Spanish, while he should have said *más viejos de lo normal*.

10.24.-...y voy a hacer **spreadsheets** con Powerpoint.

Y Powerpoints y ¿Excel **spreadsheets**?

The word *spreadsheets*, which has been used twice, is an *unintentional language switch* to the speaker's L1.

10.25.-...y voy a hacer *spreadsheets* con **Powerpoint**.

Y **Powerpoints** y ¿Excel *spreadsheets*?

The word *Powerpoint* and *Powerpoints*, pronounced in English, are *unintentional language switches* to the speaker's L1.

10.26.- ...yo puedo **meter mi pie en la puerta**.

The speaker has made a *coinage of a new expression* that originates from the English sentence: *put the/one's foot in the door*, which means: to enter a business or an organization at a low level, but with a chance of being more successful in the future (*Cambridge Dictionaries on line*). The participant has translated it literally into Spanish, yet, there is no such saying in this language.

10.27.- No sé, no **soy** preocupado sobre eso.

The speaker has made a *semantic extension*, as the verb *to be* is polysemous and means both 'ser' and 'estar' and the speaker should have used the verb 'estar' rather than 'ser'.

10.28.- No sé, no soy **preocupado** sobre eso.

The combination *preocupado sobre* is a *collocational transfer* based on the English combination of words that conventionally co-occur: *worried about*. He has maintained this collocation in Spanish when the combination is different, it actually is, *preocupado por*.

10.29.- El dinero **a** mí es importante.

The speaker has made the same *semantic extension* of the preposition *to*. The preposition *to* has several meanings and may be translated into Spanish for: *a, para, por...* The participant has chosen an inappropriate preposition as he should have opted for *para*, rather than *a*.

10.30.-¿Cómo se dice **warehouse**?

The word *warehouse* is a *borrowing* of the speaker's L1.

4.2.11.- Participant 11 (P11)

11.1.- ...*porque hay muchos **servicios** como en el **hospital**...*

In Spanish, we can talk about *servicios públicos sanitarios* but we cannot say, *servicios de hospital*, nor, *servicios como en el hospital*. The speaker has transferred into Spanish the English conventional collocation of words, *Hospital services*, which is used to refer to medical and surgical services, in addition to, laboratory, equipment, and personnel services that represent the final medical and surgical aim of a hospital. The use of this term, in this context, without specifying the specialty of the service, such as in: surgical services or anesthesia services, is wrong. The speaker has, therefore, made a *collocational transfer*.

11.2.- ...*otros trabajos que se **sirve** los residentes de los EEUU que habla solamente español.*

The use of the term *sirve*, in this context, is the result of a *semantic extension* of the English term, *render*, which means: to give (something) to someone (Merriam Webster); that is, offer or perform a service, serve. The speaker has associated the term *render* with *serve*, which in specific contexts may be synonyms, yet, in this case, it is not. The word *sirve*, is a *semantic extension* through synonymy association of the English terms *render/serve*, and *prestar/servir* in the speaker's L2.

11.3.- ...*y quiere saber **más** idiomas **que** ...inglés.*

Más que is the result of a *collocational transfer*, whose origin is the English common co-occurrence, *more than-* as in: *I want to know more languages than English-*, which in this case, should have been expressed in Spanish with the collocation *además de*.

11.4.- ...*pero pienso que voy a trabajar en un **NGO**, ONG, OGN,*

The use of the acronym *NGO* (*Non-governmental organization*) is an *unintentional language switch* to the speaker's L1. He immediately reacts and corrects himself, in the second place, and makes a second mistake in the third instance.

11.5.- ...*una **organización sin gobierno**...*

In this occasion, the participant has made a *coinage of a new expression* that has its origin in the English words, *Non-Governmental Organization*. He has translated the combination of terms into his L2.

11.6.-...*porque España es cerca del resto de Europa...*

The verbal form *es* is inappropriate, as the speaker should have used *está*. This is the result of a *semantic extension*, as the English verb *be* is linked to two different concepts in Spanish: *ser* and *estar*.

11.7.- ...*y es más fácil que viajar*.

The speaker has interpreted the word *to*, which is part of the English infinitive, as a lexical item which should also be present in Spanish. He has made a *calque* by literally translating the term, though he has chosen the wrong item, *que*. He should have simply used the infinitive of the verb *travel* in Spanish, as no pronoun is needed.

11.8.- ...*el español de España es, no sé, gente me ha dicho que es...*

The speaker has made a *calque* of the English lack of use of a definite article before general nouns. Whereas, in Spanish, we always need to use the definite article even when speaking of item or ideas in general. The participant should have said: *la gente*.

11.9.- *La gente es muy simpática que pensaba, lo que pensaba...*

The speaker has made a *calque* of a complete sentence: People are nicer *than I thought*. He has used the English comparative pronoun, *than*, which is also right in Spanish. Yet, he was not aware that in his L2 that pronoun must be preceded by *de lo*, and this is why he has made a mistake. However, in his second attempt - *lo que pensaba*- he has been about to produce the right expression, but he has once again missed the preposition *de*.

11.10.- ...*la mujer que vivo con,...*

This construction is a *collocational transfer* of the speaker's L1. In formal English, the preposition may precede the relative pronoun: *the woman with whom I live*; yet, in colloquial English the preposition may be placed immediately after the verb: *the woman (who/whom) I*

live with. The participant has maintained the English colloquial co-occurrence of words when speaking Spanish.

11.11.- ...ella **sabe** más **sobre** las políticas en América...

The combination of words *sabe sobre* is the result of a *collocational transfer* whose origin is the combination of words *know about*, which conventionally co-occur in the speaker's L1. In Spanish we would say *sabe de*.

11.12.- ...ella sabe más sobre las **políticas** en América...

The term *políticas*, in plural, is the result of maintaining the English word, *politics* (pl.) when speaking Spanish. Consequently, the use of such term is a *calque* of the speaker's L1.

11.13.-...la influencia americana es **más grande que pensaba**...

The speaker has made a *calque* of a complete sentence: American influence is greater *than I thought*. He has used the English comparative pronoun, *than*, which is also right in Spanish; yet, he was not aware that in his L2 that pronoun must be preceded by *de lo*, and this is why he has made a mistake.

11.14.-...tienes ganas de hablar con mucha gente, sí, muy **sociales**.

...las chicas jóvenes no son tan **sociales**.

Merriam Webster Dictionary, defines *social*: “a: marked by or passed in pleasant companionship with friends or associates <an active *social* life>b: sociable”. And it defines “*sociable*: inclined by nature to companionship with others of the same species: social”. This means that in this sense, *social* and *sociable* are synonymes, thus enabling speakers to say: a *social girl* and a *sociable girl*. In Spanish, however, the DRAE defines *social*: “1.adj. Perteneciente o relativo a la sociedad. 2.adj. Perteneciente o relativo a una compañía o sociedad, o a los socios o compañeros, aliados o confederados”. As we can see, the term is not an adjective which can be used to refer to individuals who seek the company of other individuals, as the appropriate adjective to refer to this quality is *sociable*, defined by DRAE as “1.adj. Naturalmente inclinado al trato y relación con las personas o que gusta de ello”.

Consequently, the participant has made a *semantic extension* of the English word, *social*, which is polysemous and covers two concepts in Spanish.

11.15.- ...*no hay mucho que no me gusta, **no puedo pensar ahora**...*

The sentence, *no puedo pensar ahora*, is a *calque* of the English: *I can't think (of anything) right now*. The speaker is trying to say: *no se me ocurre nada ahora*, which has nothing to do with the sentence used, neither in construction nor in meaning.

11.16.- ...*de **su labio**...*

...*tenía un **problema** con **sus labios**...*

The combination of words; *su labio* and *sus labios*, are the result of a *collocational transfer*, as in English possessive adjectives conventionally co-occur with parts of the body. Whereas, in Spanish this combination is not used, as we say: *someterse a una operación de labio*.

11.17.- ... *lo llevaba a los EEUU para **tener una operación**...*

In Spanish, we do not say, *tener una operación* but: *someterse a una operación*. The participant has made a *collocational transfer* of the English: *have an operation* or *have surgery*; in both cases, he would use the verb *to have*, which does correspond to *tener* in Spanish.

11.18.- ...*fue al Congreso de los EEUU y preguntó **a ellos**...*

The participant has made a *calque* of the English verb + object pronoun, *asked them*, and has translated it for *preguntó a ellos*. He is not aware that the Spanish verb *preguntar* requires a personal pronoun in the dative case, *les*, and should, therefore, have said: *les preguntó*.

4.2.12.- Participant 12 (P₁₂)

12.1.-*quiero estudiar la Historia del Arte y para hacer esto, para **obtenerun PhD***

The term *obtener* is correct in Spanish, yet, not commonly used in this context. The speaker has made a *collocational transfer* of the English words that conventionally co-occur, *get/obtain a PhD*. In Spanish, we would say: *hacer el doctorado*.

12.2.-...para obtener un **PhD**

The acronym *PhD* is a *borrowing* from the speaker's L1.

12.3.-...necesito dos **lenguajes** y por eso...

In this occasion, the speaker has based the term *lenguajes* on that of his L1, *languages*, to talk about what in Spanish is referred to by using the word *idiomas/lenguas*. The DRAE defines the word *lenguaje*: “**1.m.** Conjunto de sonidos articulados con que el hombre manifiesta lo que piensa o siente. **2. m.** lengua (II sistema de comunicación verbal)”. However, in this context the speaker is not talking about the group of sounds with which humans manifest thoughts and feelings, as defined in 1, but to the system of verbal communication used by a specific community. Therefore, the best option would either be *lengua*, verbal communication system –as in 2 above-; or *idioma*, defined by DRAE as: “**1.m.** Lengua de un pueblo o nación, o común a varios”- language of a people or nation, or common to several. The speaker has made a *semantic extension* of the English word *languages*, which is linked to several concepts in Spanish: *lenguajes*, *lenguas* and *idiomas*. The participant has chosen the term *lenguajes* when he should have chosen, *idiomas* or *lenguas*.

12.4.-...y **un otra**.

The participant has made a *collocational transfer*, as he has maintained the collocation of the English indefinite article *an* with the adjective *other*, which always co-occur in his L1 as an indefinite singular adjective. The equivalent Spanish adjective does not require the use of the indefinite article *an/un*. He should have said *otra*.

12.5.- Que yo sé los **requirements** de su...

The word *requirements* is an *unintentional language switch* to the speaker's L1.

12.6.-¿**Auction House**?

The words Auction house is an *unintentional language switch* to the speaker's L1. He should have said, *casa de subastas*.

12.7.-**Algo como** eso...

...o **algocomo** así.

The words, *algo como*, are a *collocational transfer*, based on the English combination of words *something like...* The adverb, *como*, is not used in Spanish in either case, we say *algo así*.

12.8.- *Algo como eso*, y **consultado** de arte...

The speaker has made a *coinage of a new word*, as this noun does not exist in Spanish. The origin of this new creation is the English noun *consultant*. The speaker is talking about an art consultant, who is an 'expert in coordinating collections of paintings, sculptures, and other artworks with the intended atmosphere, branding, or image desired for a building interior' (Phorio), and has added the suffix-ado used to form certain nouns in Spanish.

12.9.- *Salimos por la noche, muchas veces, hablamos con muchas gente de España...*

The speaker has made a *collocational transfer*, as he has maintained the words that conventional co-occur in his L1, *many people*. The English term *people* is plural, and therefore, requires the quantitative adjective that accompanies plural countable nouns, *many*. Yet, the word *gente*, in Spanish, is singular therefore, it would never be preceded by a plural quantitative adjective.

12.10.- ...*porque si toma muchas clases es bueno pero...*

The verb *tomar*, in this context, is a *semantic extension* of the English term *take*, which is polysemous and is used to talk about following a course, spending time, transporting from one place to another.... In Spanish, the right verb, in this case, is *ir a*. Therefore, the participant should have said: *porque si va a muchas clases es bueno pero...*

12.11.- *Es bueno pero no hablamos tan mucho.*

The participant has made a *collocational transfer* based on the conventional co-occurrence of words in his L1, *so much*. He has translated and maintained this combination when speaking Spanish, while he should have said *tanto*.

12.12.- ...*solamente hablo con **mi señora** y con mis profesores...*

The speaker has made a *calque* of the informal English sentence: *I only talk to my lady and...*

12.13.-***Depende en** su objeto...*

The words, *depende en*, are the result of a *collocational transfer* of the English terms that conventionally co-occur, *depend on*. In Spanish, he should have said *depende de*.

12.14.-*Depende en su **objeto**...*

The term *objeto* is a *semantic extension* of the English word *object*, which is polysemous and is therefore, linked to various concepts, two of which are: 1 something material that may be perceived by the senses; 2 the goal or end of an effort or activity: purpose, objective (Merriam Webster). The speaker is referring to the second definition, which in Spanish corresponds to the word *objetivo*, not *objeto*.

12.15.- ...*en los EEUU los chicos no hacen esto, pero también son más abiertos **en otras** maneras...*

The word *maneras* is a *calque* of the English term *ways*. The speaker meant to say, *en otros sentidos*.

12.16.-***No bastante**, porque son más...*

The participant has answered, *no bastante*, when asked about whether people in the USA talk about personal problems. In English, his answer would be: *not enough*, and so he has translated the two words independently, with the outcome of, *no bastante*. While, this is the translation of each of the words, when combined as a complete answer, they form a collocation which, in Spanish, is *no lo suficiente*. Therefore, the participant has made a *semantic extension* of the English answer.

12.17.- *Porque son más, no sé como se dice, **passive aggressive**...*

The words, *passive aggressive*, are a *borrowing* of the speaker's L1.

12.18.-¿*Passive agresivo*?

The speaker still can not figure out how to express his thought in Spanish, and opts for maintaining the *borrowing* of the word, *passive*, and translating the second term to Spanish; thus, making a *calque*. Therefore, he is simultaneously making a *borrowing* and a *calque*.

12.19.-Son muy *agresivo*...

Merriam Webster Dictionary offers several definitions for the term *aggressive*. In the context in which the speaker is using it, the most appropriate is: “2.b: having or showing a bold forcefulness in the pursuit of a goal”. Its equivalent in Spanish is *decidido*. As the term is polysemous, it is linked to several concepts, some of which correspond to the Spanish words, *decidido*, *enérgico*, *dinámico*, as well as *agresivo*. The speaker has made a *semantic extension* and has chosen a wrong term.

12.20.- ...pero después *gente* ayuda mucho...

The speaker has made a *calque* of the English lack of use of a definite article before general nouns. Whereas, in Spanish, we always need to use the definite article even when speaking of item or ideas in general. The participant should have said: *la gente*.

12.21.- ...puede *recibir* cosas más caras...

The term, *recibir*, is the result of a *semantic extension* of the verb *get*, which is polysemous and is linked to an indefinite number of concepts. In Spanish, some of the corresponding verbs are: *adquirir*, *comprar*, *recibir*... The speaker should have chosen the verb *comprar*, instead.

12.22.-...por eso *la gente tienen* más oportunidades...

The plural form of the verb *tener* is the result of a *collocational transfer*, as, in English, the word *people* is plural and the speaker has reproduced that number in Spanish. However, the word *gente*, in Spanish, is singular; therefore, the appropriate form the verb is singular, *la gente tiene*.

12.23.-...no tienen muchas **apartunidades**.

The word *apartunidades* is a *coinage of a new word*, based on the pronunciation of the word in the speaker's L1.

4.2.13.- Participant 13 (P₁₃)

13.1.-...mis padres me **pusieron** en un programa de ¿inmersión?

The term *pusieron* is a *calque* of the speaker's L1. The speaker has translated from English the verbal form *placed*, as in *-my parents placed me in an immersion program-*, for *pusieron*. He should have used *matricularon* o *inscribieron* instead.

13.2.- ...mis padres me pusieron en un **programa** de ¿inmersión?

The speaker has made a *semantic extension*, as the English word *program* is polysemous because it may be used to refer to a *program* as well as to a *course*. Yet, in Spanish, there are two different terms that refer to these concepts: *programa* and *curso*, and the speaker should have chosen the second term.

13.3.- ...en el primer **grado**...

...porque en el séptimo **grado**...

The use of the word *grado* in this context, is a *false cognate* of the English term *grade*, as the latter means: 1. a level of study that is completed by a student during one year; 2. the students in the same year of study at a school; and 3. a number or letter that indicates how a student performed in a class or on a test (Merriam Webster). The two first of which would be *curso* in Spanish, and the third *nota*; none of which coincide with the meaning of the word *grado* in Spanish. The Spanish Word *grado* has different meanings: **1.** m. Cada uno de los diversos estados, valores o calidades que, en relación de menor a mayor, puede tener algo. **2.** m. Valor o medida de algo que puede variar en intensidad. **3.** m. Cada una de las generaciones que marcan el parentesco entre las personas. **4.** m. En las enseñanzas media y superior, título que se alcanza al superar determinados niveles de estudio. **5.** m. En ciertas escuelas, cada una de

las secciones en que sus alumnos se agrupan según su edad y el estado de sus conocimientos y educación. **6. m.** Cada lugar de la escala en la jerarquía de una institución, especialmente en la militar. **7. m. jerarquía.** **8. m.** Unidad de determinadas escalas de medida, como la temperatura o el **grado** de alcohol. **9. m. grado de temperatura.** **10. m.** Unidad porcentual de alcohol que hay en una bebida. **11. m. peldaño** (DRAE). As mentioned above none of the meanings of the Spanish term coincide with the intended meaning of *level of study*. The speaker should have used the word *curso* instead.

13.4.- ...*me di cuenta que fue muy **beneficiado***...

The speaker has produced a *lexical invention* based on the English term *beneficial*. He has added to the root, the suffix *-ado* used to form the past participle of the verbs belonging to the first conjugation, one of whose uses is that of adjective. The participant is not aware that in Spanish there are two terms: *beneficioso*, used to refer to that which produces a benefit; and *beneficiado*, used to describe the individual who obtains a benefit. As he is talking about a situation which produces a benefit, he should have chosen *beneficioso*.

13.5.- ...*yo podía **escoger** si yo quería hacerlo*.

The speaker has made a *calque* of the English verb *choose*. In Spanish, we would use the verb *decider* instead.

13.6.- ...*es muy interesante saber dos **lenguajes***...

Alike P₁₂, this speaker has based the term *lenguajes* on that of his L1, *languages*, to talk about what in Spanish is referred to by using the word *idiomas/lenguas*. The DRAE defines the word *lenguaje*: “**1. m.** Conjunto de sonidos articulados con que el hombre manifiesta lo que piensa o siente. **2. m.** lengua (II sistema de comunicación verbal)”. However, in this context the speaker is not talking about the group of sounds with which humans manifest thoughts and feelings, as defined in 1, but to the system of verbal communication used by a specific community. Therefore, the best option would either be *lengua*, verbal communication system –as in 2 above–; or *idioma*, defined by DRAE as: “**1. m.** Lengua de un pueblo o nación, o común a varios”- language of a people or nation, or common to several. The speaker has made a *semantic extension* of the English word *languages*, which is linked to several concepts

in Spanish: *lenguajes*, *lenguas* and *idiomas*. The participant has chosen the term *lenguajes* when he should have chosen, *idiomas* or *lenguas*.

13.7.- *Entonces es bien para mí.*

The speaker has made a *semantic extension*, as the verb *to be* is polysemous and means both ‘*ser*’ and ‘*estar*’, and the speaker should have used the verb ‘*estar*’ rather than ‘*ser*’.

13.8.- *Muy bueno, es bonita y limpia...*

The participant has replied, *Muy bueno*, when asked what he thought of Spain. This answer is the result of a *collocational transfer* of the conventional co-occurrence of words in English: *Very good*, as in: *Very good, I think it's lovely and clean*. *Very good* in this context, means *fantastic*, *great*, and has been used to provide emphasis to the speech. The speaker should have used a term such as: *Fantástica*, *Genial*, in his L2.

13.9.- *...no me gusta los euros en comparativa a los dólares...*

...sí, mucho, en comparativo de los EEUU...

These two cases are the result of a *collocational transfer*, as the participant has maintained the terms that frequently co-occur in his L1, *in comparison*, when speaking his L2.

13.10.- *Mi mamá de alojamiento y mis amigas...*

The speaker has made a *collocational transfer* based on the English co-occurrence of words: *accommodation mother*, used to refer to the mother of the family the speaker is living with while visiting a foreign country and staying with a local family. In Spanish, we would say: *la madre de la familia con la que vivo*.

13.11.- *...y mis amigas de mi programa, pero ellas son...*

The speaker has made a *semantic extension*, as the English word *program* is polysemous and may be used to refer to a *program* as well as to a *course*. Yet, in Spanish, there are two different terms that refer to these concepts: *programa* and *curso*, and the speaker should have chosen the second term.

13.12.- ...la problemma es que yo no sé dónde buscar **niñas**, o chicas...

The participant has made a *semantic extension* of the English term *girls*, though she has automatically corrected herself afterwards by using the appropriate word *chicas*. The term *girls* in English is polysemous and means both *niñas* and *chicas* in Spanish. The English word, *girls* does not distinguish ages, while Spanish does. *Niñas* is used to talk about girls when they are children; whereas, *chicas* is used to talk about female teenagers.

13.13.- ...para mí, siento que esta **escuela** es la **escuela** de ellos...

The word *school* is polysemous as it refers to learning centers of different levels, from *pre-school*, through *secondary school*, *high school* and *university*, which in Spanish are referred to by using different words '*escuela*, *colegio* and *facultad*'. The participant should have used the term *facultad* rather than *escuela*. Therefore, she has made a *semantic extension*.

13.14.- No es por algo que ellos **hicieron a mí**, o a mis amigos...

The words *a mí* are a *calque* of the English indirect object, *to me*, as in: *something they did to me*. The speaker is not aware that in Spanish the verb *hacer* requires a personal pronoun in the dative case, *me*, as in: *me hicieron*.

13.15.- ...cuando yo voy al cafetería es como yo soy una mesa y ellos **son** en...

The speaker has made a *semantic extension*, as the verb *to be* is polysemous and means both '*ser*' and '*estar*', and the speaker should have used the verb '*estar*' rather than '*ser*'.

13.16.- ...cuando yo voy al cafetería es como yo soy una mesa y ellos son en **un otro**...

The participant has made a *collocational transfer*, as he has maintained the collocation of the English indefinite article *an* with the adjective *other*, which always co-occur in his L1 as an indefinite singular adjective. The equivalent Spanish adjective does not require the use of the indefinite article *an/un*. He should have said *otro*.

13.17.- Y ahora que yo estoy aprendiendo gramática yo pienso en cómo conjugar **mis verbos**...

In this case the participant has made a *collocational transfer* of the possessive adjective + noun that commonly co-occur in her L1 to refer to elements that an individual use to perform an action. The use of the possessive adjective is common in English while it is not when speaking Spanish. The speaker should have said: *los verbos*.

13.18.- *Pero estoy **comitiéndolos** cada día, muchos.*

The term *comitiéndolos* is a *coinage of a new word*, whose creation is based on the phonetic sound of the term, *commit*, in English.

13.19.- *Es cuando mis amigos de como, **Norway***

In this occasion, the speaker has made a *borrowing* of her L1.

13.20.- *Cuando **ellas hablan en inglés a mí.***

The words *a mí* are a *calque* of the English indirect object, *to me*, as in: speak English *to me*. The speaker is not aware that in Spanish the verb *hablar* requires a personal pronoun in the dative case, *me*, as in: *me hablan*.

13.21.- *Antes era mucho más **fácil para** aprender...*

The speaker has made a *subcategorization transfer*, as she has used an adjective followed by a prepositional object when in Spanish there is no need of such prepositional object.

13.22.- *...y después como si, **you know.***

The participant has made an *unintentional language switch* to her L1.

13.23.- *...no tenía tiempo para conseguir un **vota de ausencia.***

The terms *vota de ausencia* are a *coinage of a new expression* of the English terms: *absentee vote*, which the speaker has translated into Spanish. The English combination of words uses the term *absentee*, in Spanish, *ausente*, because this type of voting process is used when a voter is absent from his country, but Spanish focuses on the fact that the vote is sent by mail and therefore, expresses the idea by saying *voto por correo*, instead.

13.24.- *Sé mucho de Obama porque fue el presidente **por cuatro años.***

In this case, the use of the term *por* is a *collocational transfer* of the terms that frequently co-occur in English *for + period of time*. The speaker has used the English combination when speaking Spanish, when she should have used *durante + period of time*.

13.25.- *Entonces, si el me **cuento** que va hacer más cosas...*

The term *cuento* is the result of a *semantic extension* of the English verb *tell*, which is polysemous and is linked to two different concepts: say to somebody and relate a story. The former corresponds to the Spanish word *decir*, and the latter to *contar*. In this case, the speaker has chosen the inappropriate word.

13.26.- *...entonces, yo voy a **escuchar** eso.*

The speaker has made a *semantic extension* of the English verb *listen*, which is polysemous and can be translated for *escuchar*, *prestar atención*, *hacer caso*. The participant should have chosen the terms *hacer caso* instead.

13.27.- *Entonces, van a **decir** las malas cosas **sobre** Obama.*

The use of the word *sobre* is the result of a *collocational transfer* of the English combination of words *say(something) about*. The speaker has maintained that collocation in Spanish when he should have used the preposition *de*, rather than *sobre*.

13.28.- *Pero yo no tengo **mucho** interés en la política como yo debo.*

The speaker meant to say: *Pero yo no tengo tanto interés en la política como debo*; as his sentence is comparative he should have used the comparative *tanto*, rather than the intensifier *mucho*. He has made a *calque* of his L1 by translating the sentence: *I don't have as much interest in politics as I should*. As *much* means *tanto* but he may have been trapped by the quantifier *much* and not realized that he was making a comparative sentence.

13.29.- *Sí, pienso que **fue** muy cerca...*

The speaker has made a *semantic extension*, as the verb *to be* is polysemous and means both 'ser' and 'estar', and the speaker should have used the verb 'estar' rather than 'ser'.

13.30.- *...fue muy cerca **para** que yo he oído...*

The speaker has made a *semantic extension* of the preposition *for*. The preposition *for* has several meanings and may be translated into Spanish for: *a, para, por, durante...* The participant has chosen an inappropriate preposition as he should have opted for *por*, rather than *para*.

13.31.- ...*fue muy cerca para **que** yo he oído...*

On the other hand, the speaker has made a *calque* of the sentence in his L1: *very close from what I've heard*. He is unaware that, in this case, the relative pronoun *que* requires the personal pronoun *lo*, and consequently he should have said: *estuvieron muy cerca por lo que he oído*.

13.32.-...*porque también querían **drama**...*

The word *drama* in Spanish, is a *false cognate* of the same word in the speaker's L1. The DRAE defines the term: “**1.**m. Obra perteneciente a la poesía dramática. **2.** m. Obra de teatro o de cine en que prevalecen acciones y situaciones tensas y pasiones conflictivas. **3.** m. Suceso de la vida real, capaz de interesar y conmover vivamente”. The participant did not intend to refer to a moving event of real life –as in 3 – and should have, therefore, said: *situaciones dramáticas*, instead.

13.33.- ...*donaron más dinero y hizo un **programa** de gramática.*

...*unas veces cuando bailas, como en el **programa** de drama...*

The speaker has made a *semantic extension*, as the English word *program* is polysemous and may be used to refer to a *program* as well as to a *course*. Yet, in Spanish, there are two different terms that refer to these concepts: *programa* and *curso*, and the speaker should have chosen the second term.

13.34.- ...*puedes hacer daño a su **cuerpo**.*

The speaker has made a *collocational transfer* as she is maintaining the combination of words that co-occur in her L1 of possessive adjective + body and parts of the body. However, in Spanish this collocation does not conventionally occur.

13.35.-...y demostró **el internet**.

The combination of words *el internet* is the result of a *collocational transfer* of the terms that commonly co-occur, *the internet*, in the speaker's L1. In Spanish, the definite article is not used before the noun *internet*.

13.36.- Y, *en fin*, **at last**, graduaron.

The speaker has made a *borrowing* from her L1.

13.37.-**El fin**.

The words, *El fin*, is the result of a *collocational transfer* that is so frequently used when a story ends, *the end*. The speaker has maintained this collocation when, in Spanish, the definite article is not used.

4.2.14.- Participant 14 (P₁₄)

14.1.- ...mis padres fueron a Escocia **de** California y yo fui **de** aquí.

The speaker has made the same *semantic extension* of the preposition *from* twice. The preposition *from* has several meanings and may be translated into Spanish for: *de and desde*. The participant has chosen an inappropriate preposition as he should have opted for the preposition *desde*, rather than *de*.

14.2.- Hay mucha, se llama, cha, ja, **jargon**.

The word *jargon* is an *unintentional language switch* to the speaker's L1. He should have used the Spanish term, *jerga*.

14.3.-...jargon, ¿jargon? **or...**

The word *or* is an *unintentional language switch* to the speaker's L1.

14.4.- ...cuando estaba en ¿**Middle School**?

The words *Middle school* is an *unintentional language switch* to the speaker's L1.

14.5.- *No sé cómo se llama, **elective**, se llama **elective**...*

The word *elective* is an *unintentional language switch* to the speaker's L1. The speaker should have used the term *optativa* to talk about an elective subject.

14.6.- *A mí me encanta. Y, no sé, fui allí, a mi **colegio**, universidad.*

The speaker has made a *semantic extension*, the origin of which is the English term school. The word *school* is polysemous as it refers to learning centers of different levels, from *pre-school*, through *secondary school*, *high school* and *university*, which in Spanish are referred to by using different words '*escuela*, *colegio* and *facultad*'. The participant should have used the term *facultad* rather than *colegio*.

14.7.- *...hay mucha gente de Méjico y es algo muy **bueno parahablar dos idiomas**.*

The speaker has mistaken the *to*, belonging to the infinitive of the verb *talk* in English with a preposition and has translated it to Spanish making a *subcategorization transfer*, as the adjective, *bueno*, does not require a prepositional object. The speaker should have said: *es algo muy bueno hablar dos idiomas*.

14.8.- *Sí, yo sé.*

The short answer, *Sí, yo sé*, is a *calque* of the English, *Yes, I know*. In Spanish, we do not need to use the subject *yo* because the verbal form reveals the subject, but do use the object *lo*; so we say: *Sí, lo sé*.

4.2.15.- Participant 15 (P₁₅)

15.1.- *Yo sé **cómo leer**...*

The words *cómo leer* are a *collocational transfer* of the English combination of the verb know+how+verb. This collocation has been translated into Spanish when the adverb is not used.

15.2.- ...una ciudad que **gente** siempre habla...

... y hay escuelas y **gente** está feliz.

The speaker has made a *calque* of the English lack of use of a definite article before general nouns. Whereas, in Spanish, we always need to use the definite article even when speaking of item or ideas in general. The participant should have said: la gente.

15.3.- ...el hombre que yo **vivo con** no sabe inglés...

This construction is a *collocational transfer* of the speaker's L1. In formal English, the preposition may precede the relative pronoun: *the woman with whom I live*; yet, in colloquial English the preposition may be placed immediately after the verb: *the woman (who/whom) I live with*. The participant has maintained the English colloquial co-occurrence of words when speaking Spanish.

15.4.- ...no tengo tiempo para pensar si **estoy** correcto o incorrecto...

The speaker has made a *semantic extension*, as the verb *to be* is polysemous and means both 'ser' and 'estar' and the speaker should have used the verb 'ser' rather than 'estar'.

15.5.- ... y **en esa manera** nosotros aprendemos dos lenguas...

The word *manera* is a *collocational transfer* of the English combination of words: *inthat way*...The speaker meant to say, *y de ese modo/de esa manera*.

15.6.- ...mi casa, cuando no estoy en San Diego, **es** también en el sur de California.

The speaker has made a *semantic extension*, as the verb *to be* is polysemous and means both 'ser' and 'estar'. The speaker should have used the verb 'estar' rather than 'ser'.

15.7.- En una **erea** que se llama San Bernardino.

The word *erea*, is *acoinage of a new word*, whose origin is the phonetic sound of the English term *area*. By giving the word the English pronunciation the participant has created a new term.

15.8.- Oh, sí, yo he **leído sobre**.

The use of the words *leído sobre* are the result of a *collocational transfer* of the English combination of words *read about*. The speaker has maintained that collocation in Spanish when he should have used the preposition *de/acerca de*, rather than *sobre*. In addition, in Spanish a sentence can never end in a preposition as it does in English, and the speaker has maintained this structure when speaking Spanish.

15.9.-*Porque yo no hacía las cosas que necesita hacer para votar **afuera de los EEUU**...*

These words are the result of a *calque* of the English: *to vote away from the States*. In Spanish, the way of expressing this idea is: *votar en el extranjero*.

15.10.- *Pues **en los años recientes**, cuando...*

The participant has made a *calque* of the English time object: *in (the) recent years...* In Spanish, we would say: *en los últimos años*.

15.11.- *...yo no sé **qué** es la situación en las diferentes partes de España.*

The speaker has made a *calque* of the English sentence: *I don't know what the situation is in the different parts of Spain*. He has literally translated the interrogative pronoun *what* for *qué*, which is generally right; yet, when there is a limited number of elements – such as parts of Spain – as there is in this instance, we use the pronoun *cuál*, instead.

15.12.- *Sí, yo he seguido (las elecciones) **en la internet**.*

The participant is making a *collocational transfer*, as he is maintaining the combination of words that occur in his L1, *the internet*, when speaking his L2. Yet, in Spanish, the definite article is not used before the word *internet*.

15.13.- *Sí, **en la elección** anterior he votado por Obama.*

The term *elección* should be used in plural in Spanish – *las elecciones*. The speaker has made a *calque* of the English sentence in which the noun can be used either in singular or plural.

15.14.- *...y después un hombre que quiere cambiar habló **enfrente de** mucha gente...*

The words *enfrente de* are the result of a *calque* of the English prepositions, *in front of*– as in, *talk in front of many people*. In Spanish, the expression used is: *delante de*.

15.15.-Él encontró a ella...

The participant has made a *calque* by literally translating the English sentence: *met/found her*, por *encontró a ella*. He is not aware that the verb *encontrar* requires a personal pronoun in the accusative case.

*15.16.- ...cuando él está en el **militario**.*

The term *militario* is a *lexical invention*, based on the English noun, *military*. The speaker has added the suffix *-riou* to form nouns in his L2.

4.2.16.- Participant 16 (P₁₆)

*16.1.- ...yo vivo allí con mi familia cuando no estoy en la **escuela**, la universidad.*

The word *school* is polysemous as it refers to learning centers of different levels, from *pre-school*, through *secondary school*, *high school* and *college*, which in Spanish are referred to by using different words '*escuela*, *colegio* and *facultad*'. The participant should have used the term *facultad* rather than *escuela*. Therefore, he has made a *semantic extension*.

*16.2.- Porque cuando yo **estaba** un niño,...*

The speaker has made a *semantic extension*, as the verb *to be* is polysemous and means both '*ser*' and '*estar*'. The speaker should have used the verb '*ser*' rather than '*estar*'.

*16.3.- ...yo tenía que **coger** una lengua para estudiar...*

The use of the verb *coger* is the result of a *semantic extension* of the English verb *take*, which is polysemous and therefore, linked to different concepts: *tomar*, *llevar* and *coger*, in Spanish. The speaker has used it to say that, *a student takes a course* or *takes a number of courses each year*. However, in Spanish, the verb *coger* does not have this meaning, and consequently, the participant should have used the verb *elegir/optar por*.

16.4.- *Porque hay muchos **migrantes** de Méjico...*

The participant has made a *lexical invention* based on the English noun, *migrants*. He has adapted the word to Spanish by adding the suffix *-es* used to form the masculine plural nouns.

16.5.- *...migrantes de Méjico y **Latin America**.*

The speaker has made a *borrowing* of the English terms *Latin America*, when he should have said *América Latina/Latinoamérica/América del Sur*.

16.6.- *...y después voy a **atender** a una universidad...*

The word *atender*, in this case, is a *false cognate* of the English verb *attend*, which means to be present; while the word in Spanish means *assist, provide aid*.

16.7.-**Hay** muchos años.

The impersonal form of the verb *haber*, *hay*, is a *calque* of the speaker's L1. The participant has literally translated the sentence: *There're many years*, when he should have said: *Han pasado muchos años* or *Son muchos años*.

16.8.-¿**Cuál** tipo?

The participant has made a *calque* of his L1 by using the interrogative particle *cuál*, which corresponds to the English *which*, instead of using the interrogative particle *qué*. In Spanish, he should have used the latter.

16.9.-¿Cuál tipo? ¡Oh! ¡**Wow!**

The interjection *Wow* is an *unintentional language switch* to the speaker's L1.

16.10.-**Depende en** cuál tipo de...

The participant has made a *collocational transfer* as he has maintained the English collocation '*Depend on*' in his L2 when the collocation in Spanish should be '*Depende de*' not '*Depende en*'.

16.11.-**Well**, dónde yo vivo en los EEUU...

The adverb *well*, is an *unintentional language switch* to the speaker's L1.

16.12.- ...*muchas personas no **hablan sobre** sus opiniones...*

...*pero cuando están con personas que no saben, no **hablan sobre** política...*

The use of the words *hablan sobre* is the result of a *collocational transfer* of the English combination of words *talkabout*. The speaker has maintained that collocation in Spanish when he should have used the preposition *de*, rather than *sobre*.

16.13.- ...*pero cuando están con personas que no **saben**, no hablan sobre política...*

The choice of the verb *saber* is a *semantic extension* of the English verb *know*, which is linked to several concepts: to have (information of some kind) in your mind; to understand (something); to have learned (something, as a skill or a language) (Merriam Webster). The first case would correspond to the Spanish verb *saber*; the second to *comprender*; and the third to *conocer*. The speaker has opted for the wrong term, as he is mentioning that in the USA people do not talk about politics if they are not acquainted with the individuals they are having a conversation with. Therefore, the participant should have used the verb *conocer*.

16.14.-...*es **comportamiento bueno** ...*

The words *comportamiento bueno* are a *collocational transfer* of the terms that conventionally co-occur in English, *good behavior*. In Spanish, we do not use the adjective *bueno*; we, on the other hand, use *apropiado*.

16.15.-*I'm no sé, es difícil....*

The subject and verb, *I'm*, are an *unintentional language switch* to the speaker's L1.

16.16.-...*es **difícil para** discutir...*

The adjective *difícil* followed by a prepositional object are a *subcategorization transfer* of the English sentence: *difficult to discuss*. The speaker has interpreted the word, *to*, which is part of the infinitive of the verb *discuss*, as a preposition, and has therefore, translated it into Spanish as such. However, this structure does not require any preposition at all.

16.17.-...es difícil para **discutir**...

The Spanish verb *discutir* is a *false cognate* of the English verb *discuss*, as they are both similar in form but very different in meaning. The English verb means, *talk*; while the Spanish means *argue*.

16.18.- ...ellos no tienen *problemmas* que hablar en esos **timas**.

The speaker has made a *coinage of a new word*, probably based on the English noun *themes*. He has phonetically reproduced the word in Spanish.

16.19.- ...un poco muy antes de empieza de huelga, la **demonstración**.

Hay algunas huelgas y **demonstraciones** de las personas que...

The terms are *false cognates* of the English word *demonstration*. The words are very similar in form but different in meaning as the English word, in this context, means: an event in which people gather together in order to show that they support or oppose something or someone (Merriam Webster Dictionary); and the Spanish word means: “4. f. *Fil.* Prueba de algo, partiendo de verdades universales y evidentes”, which has nothing to do with the meaning in English. Therefore, the appropriate Spanish word is *manifestación*.

16.20.-Una persona que quieren **hacer** algo **sobre** esos...

The participant has made a *collocational transfer* of the English combination of words *do (something) about*. Whereas, in Spanish this verb does not combine with the preposition *sobre* but with *de*.

16.21.- ...de las personas que tienen **opiniones fuertes**.

The words *opiniones fuertes* are a *collocational transfer* of the English words that conventionally co-occur, *strong opinions*. However, in Spanish, the combination is *opiniones firmes*.

16.22.- ...hay mucha **atención sobre** este tema.

The words *atención sobre* is a *calque* of the English sentence: *there's a lot of attention on this subject*, which the speaker has translated literally into Spanish while he should have said, *la atención está centrada en*.

16.23.- ...**enseñan** a esos niños **cómo** escribir y leer.

The combination of words *enseñan* + *a* (alguien) + *cómo* + *infinitive* is a *collocational +transfer* of the English verb *teach* + (someone) + *how* + *verb*. In Spanish the adverb *cómo* is not used; we, on the other hand, use the preposition *a*.

16.24.- ...es un niño que **está**, no **está** joven ahora pero...

The participant has made a *semantic extension* of the verb *to be*, which is polysemous in English and in Spanish means both *ser* and *estar*. He should have used the verb 'ser' instead of the verb 'estar'.

4.2.17.- Participant 17 (P₁₇)

17.1.- Muchos **festivos**, desface de child...

The speaker has made a *false cognate* of the English word *festival*, by using the term *festivos*, which does exist in Spanish but with a different meaning. According to *DRAE*, *festivo* means: **1.** adj. Chistoso, agudo; **2.** adj. Alegre, regocijado y gozoso; **3.** adj. Solemne, digno de celebrarse. In Spanish, he should have used the word: *festival*, which is a cognate of the English word.

17.2.- Muchos **festivos**, desface de **child**...

The participant has made a *borrowing* from his L1.

17.3.- ...es difícil estudiar cuando estamos en un **ambiente**...

The participant has made a *calque* of the English word *atmosphere*, which he has translated for *ambiente*, the translation is right, yet, it is not the appropriate term in his L2 to refer to this concept. He should have chosen the term *contexto*.

17.4.- ...en la misma situación que **estoy** tan joven, que **estoy**...

...me gustaría aprovechar que puedo cuando **estoy** tan joven...

The speaker has made three *semantic extensions* as the verb *to be* is polysemous and means both ‘*ser*’ and ‘*estar*’ and the speaker should have used the verb ‘*ser*’ instead of ‘*estar*’.

17.5.- ...tenemos que estudiar todo el tiempo haciendo oraciones, **ensayos**, presentaciones.

The word *ensayos* is the result of a *semantic extension* of the English term *essay*, which is linked to two different concepts in Spanish *ensayo* and *trabajo académico*. The participant should have chosen the terms *trabajo académico* rather than *ensayo* because this term means: **1.** m. Acción y efecto de ensayar; **2.** m. Escrito en el cual un autor desarrolla sus ideas sin necesidad de mostrar el aparato erudito; **3.** m. Género literario al que pertenece este tipo de escrito; **4.** m. Operación por la cual se averigua el metal o metales que contiene la mena, y la proporción en que cada uno está con el peso de ella, **5.** m. Análisis de la moneda para descubrir su ley. The listener would have understood the term as in 2 above, and that is certainly not what the speaker meant.

17.6.- ...y podemos **hacer que** queremos...

The speaker has made a *calque* by translating the sentence: *we can do what we want*; but has been unaware that the Spanish relative pronoun *que*, in this case, must be preceded by the demonstrative pronoun *lo*.

17.7.- ...tengo que hacer todos los **sujetos** diferentes para...

The term *sujetos* is the result of a *semantic extension* of the English word *subject*, which is linked to various concepts: 1. the person or thing that is being discussed or described, 2. an area of knowledge that is studied in school; and 3. a person or thing that is being dealt with

in a particular way (Merriam Webster). The term used in Spanish for concepts 1 and 3 is *sujeto*; yet, that for concept 2 is *asignatura*. The speaker should have chosen *asignatura*.

17.8.-...*para ser un estudiante total*.

The speaker meant to say: *to be a complete/total student*... He has therefore, made a *calque* of this expression by translating the term *complete/total*, for *total* when he actually should have said: *un estudiante completo*.

17.9.- ...*nuestras profesoras, porque son más, en EEUU son más sencillos porque la cultura....*

The participant has made a *calque*, as in English she would have said *because of (culture)*. However, in Spanish she should have said *por (la cultura)* instead of *porque*.

17.10.-**OK**, *vale*.

The speaker has made a *borrowing* from his L1.

17.11.- *Algún día estaba navegando la red...*

The speaker has made a *collocational transfer* of the words that frequently co-occur in English, *surf the web*. The choice of the verb *navegar* for *surf* might have been the result of the speaker finding the verb *surfear* too close to English, and therefore, opted for *navegar* (sail) instead. In Spanish, we can say *navegar por internet*, and we can also refer to *the internet* as *la red*, or *la web*. Yet, the combination *navegar la red* does not co-occur.

17.12.-**Depende en** *la ciudad*.

The combination of words *depende en* is a *collocational transfer* of the words that frequently co-occur in English, *depend on*. In Spanish, however, the combination is *depende de*, rather than *en*.

17.13.- ...*y las personas que gusta hablar sobre ...*

The use of the words *hablar sobre* are the result of a *collocational transfer* of the English combination of words *talk about*. The speaker has maintained that collocation in Spanish when he should have said *hablar de*, rather than *sobre*; or else, have said: *decir lo que...*

17.14.- ...*hablar sobre sus **opiniones muy fuertes***.

The words *opiniones (muy) fuertes* are a *collocational transfer* of the English words that conventionally co-occur, *(very)strong opinions*. However, in Spanish, the combination is *opiniones firmes*.

17.15.-*Sí, sus conferencias diferentes puntos para **hacer decisiones**...*

The combination of words *hacer decisiones* is the result of a *collocational transfer* of the English: *make decisions/take decisions*. The Spanish collocation is: *tomar decisiones*.

17.16.-*Trabajé con un **non-lucrativo***.

The participant has made a *borrowing* of the prefix *non-* from his L1, and, by doing so, has made a *coinage of a new term*, as in Spanish we would say *no lucrativo*.

17.17.-...*porque hay 15%**non-documentados***.

Once again, the speaker has made a *borrowing* of the English prefix *non-* and has added a Spanish term afterwards. This has led him to make a *lexical invention* as this term does not exist in Spanish.

17.18.- ...*yo tenía que traducir **por** ellas...*

The speaker has made a *semantic extension* of the English preposition *for*, which may correspond to several prepositions in Spanish. The speaker has chosen the preposition *por* when he should have opted for *para*.

17.19.-...*a pesar de que no **estoy** perfecta...*

The speaker has made three *semantic extensions* as the verb *to be* is polysemous and means both ‘*ser*’ and ‘*estar*’ and the speaker should have used the verb ‘*ser*’ instead of ‘*estar*’.

4.2.18.- Participant 18 (P18)

18.1.- *Cuando empecé la universidad sí quería **ser** más cerca de mi casa.*

The speaker has made three *semantic extensions* as the verb *to be* is polysemous and means both ‘*ser*’ and ‘*estar*’ and the speaker should have used the verb ‘*estar*’ rather than ‘*ser*’.

18.2.-...*la misma **programa**.*

The speaker has made a *semantic extension*, as the English word *program* is polysemous because it may be used to refer to a *program* as well as to a *course*. Yet, in Spanish, there are two different terms that refer to these ideas *programa* and *curso* and the speaker should have chosen the second term.

18.3.-*Sí, tenemos **conexiones** diferentes...*

The term *conexiones* is the result of a *semantic extension* of the English word *connections*, which is polysemous and therefore, linked to different concepts. Some such concepts are: 2 *a*: something that connects: link; *b*: a means of communication or transport; 3: a person connected with another especially by marriage, kinship, or common interest; 4: a political, social, professional, or commercial relationship (Merriam Webster). The speaker used the term as in 2 above, which, in Spanish, is expressed by using the term *contactos*, or *conocidos*, rather than *conexiones*.

18.4.- *Tiene dos hijos pero son **crecidos**.*

The speaker has made a *calque* by translating the English adjective *grown up* for *crecidos*. He should have said *adultos/mayores* instead.

18.5.-*También he **tomado** muchas clases de educación.*

The verb *tomar*, in this context, is a *semantic extension* of the English term *take*, which is polysemous and is used to talk about following a course, spending time, transporting from one place to another.... In Spanish, the right verb, in this case, is *ir a*. Therefore, the participant should have said: *También he ido a muchas clases de educación*.

18.6.- *Quiero tener experiencia en esa **área** de estudian.*

The term *área* is the result of a *semantic extension* of the English noun *area*, which is linked to several concepts in the speaker's L2. In this context, the word may be expressed in Spanish, by using both *área* and *ámbito*. The participant has chosen the wrong term as, when referring to studies, the appropriate word to use is, *ámbito* (de estudio).

18.7.- *...hay que ser una persona muy especial **a** trabajar...*

The adjective *especial* followed by a prepositional object is a *calque* of the English sentence: *special to work with*. The speaker has interpreted the word, *to*, which is part of the infinitive of the verb *work*, as a preposition, and has therefore, translated it into Spanish as such. However, this structure does not require any preposition at all when speaking Spanish.

18.8.- *Es tan diferente algo que he **experimentado** antes de eso...*

The speaker has produced a *coinage of a new word*, as he has created the verb *experimentar* basing it on the English verb *to experience*. He has created the gerund of the verb by properly adding the suffix *-ado*, which corresponds to the first conjugation. The Spanish term that corresponds to such verb is *experimentar*; therefore, the speaker should have said, *experimentado*.

18.9.- *...la gente es todo, es muy **embigo**, la gente...*

Embigo.

In both cases, the participant has made a *lexical invention*, as the appropriate term in Spanish is *ambiguo*. He has based the creation of this term on the pronunciation of the word *ambiguous* in his L1.

18.10.- *...no es claro, es un gran respuesta, como "**vague**".*

The term *vague* is an *unintentional language switch* to the speaker's L1.

18.11.- *...pero para visitar y disfrutar de esa **área**.*

The term *área* is the result of a *semantic extension* of the English noun *area*, which is linked to several concepts in the speaker's L2. In this context, the word may be expressed in Spanish, by using both *área* and *zona*. The participant has chosen the term which is not naturally used in this context. The common way to say this is by using the word *zona*.

18.12.- *Es en mi opinión, no me gusta **tampoco** de las opciones...*

By using the word *tampoco*, the participant has based his choice on the English term *either*, which is polysemous and, therefore, linked to various concepts. According to Merriam Webster, as an adverb the meaning is: 1: likewise, moreover —used for emphasis after a negative. As a pronoun, the meaning is: the one or the other. The translation into Spanish of the adverb is *tampoco*; while that of the pronoun is *ninguno/a*. The speaker has opted for the adverb when the word, in this sentence, is a pronoun, and therefore, he should have chosen the term *ninguna*, feminine, as the noun *opción* is feminine. Consequently, the participant has made a *semantic extension*.

18.13.- *Pero solamente vi el comienzo de la gente, pero no el **turno**.*

The word *turno* is a *coinage of a new word*, based on the English noun *turnout*, which means: the number of people who go to or participate in something (*Merriam Webster*). The speaker is talking, precisely, about that, the resulting number of participants in a demonstration and has taken that noun and added the suffix *-o*, used to form the masculine nouns in Spanish. The speaker should have said: *número de participantes resultantes*.

18.14.- *Pués, en EEUU tiene que ser parte de un Sindicato para, o... Sí, para **hulgar** ¿hulgar?*

The word *hulgar* is a *coinage of a new word*, based on the fact that in English the noun and the verb, *strike*/strike, are identical and the participant has tried to follow the same strategy in Spanish, creating the verb by adding the “ar” ending, common to the first conjugation. He has mistakenly omitted the “e” from the term.

4.2.19.-Participant 19 (P₁₉)

19.1.-...*todos nosotros **son** el mismo grado...*

The speaker has made three *semantic extensions* as the verb *to be* is polysemous and means both ‘*ser*’ and ‘*estar*’ and the speaker should have used the verb ‘*estar*’ rather than ‘*ser*’.

19.2.- ...*todos nosotros son el mismo **grado**...*

...*el tercer **grado** de la universidad.*

...*empecé a estudiar en un sexto **grado**.*

The use of the word *grado* in this context, is a *false cognate* of the English term *grade*, as the latter means: 1. a level of study that is completed by a student during one year; 2. the students in the same year of study at a school; and 3. a number or letter that indicates how a student performed in a class or on a test (Merriam Webster). The two first of which would be *curso* in Spanish, and the third *nota*; none of which coincide with the meaning of the word *grado* in Spanish. The Spanish word *grado* has different meanings: **1.** m. Cada uno de los diversos estados, valores o calidades que, en relación de menor a mayor, puede tener algo. **2.** m. Valor o medida de algo que puede variar en intensidad. **3.** m. Cada una de las generaciones que marcan el parentesco entre las personas. **4.** m. En las enseñanzas media y superior, título que se alcanza al superar determinados niveles de estudio. **5.** m. En ciertas escuelas, cada una de las secciones en que sus alumnos se agrupan según su edad y el estado de sus conocimientos y educación. **6.** m. Cada lugar de la escala en la jerarquía de una institución, especialmente en la militar. **7.** m. **jerarquía**. **8.** m. Unidad de determinadas escalas de medida, como la temperatura o el **grado** de alcohol. **9.** m. **grado de temperatura**. **10.** m. Unidad porcentual de alcohol que hay en una bebida. **11.** m. **peldaño** (DRAE). As mentioned above none of the meanings of the Spanish term coincide with the intended meaning of *level of study*. The speaker should have used the word *curso* instead.

19.3.-***Well**, el tercer grado de la universidad...*

The term *well* is a *borrowing* from the speaker’s L1.

19.4.- No quiero **creer** sobre esto...

The participant has made a *semantic extension* of the English verb *think*. This word is polysemous and is linked to several concepts: *to believe that something is true*, *to have an opinion about someone or something* and *to form or have (a thought) in your mind* (Merriam Webster). The verb *creer* is linked to the first concept of the word in English; in the second case, we would use the verb *pensar* or *considerar*; and in the third, we would use *pensar*. In this case, the speaker should have chosen the third concept rather than the first.

19.5.-No quiero **creer sobre** esto...

The words *creo sobre* is the result of a *collocational transfer* from the speaker's L1. The participant has maintained the combination of words that conventionally co-occur in English, *think about*, when speaking Spanish. The appropriate combination in Spanish is *pensar en*.

19.6.-Sí, **yo sé**.

The short answer, *Sí, yo sé*, is a *calque* of the English, *Yes, I know*. In Spanish, we do not need to use the subject *yo* because the verbal form reveals the subject, but do use the object *lo*; so we say: *Sí, lo sé*.

19.7.-...quiero ser **bilingual**...

The speaker has made an *unintentional language switch* into his L1.

19.8.-**I mean**, no he aprendido...

The speaker has made an *unintentional language switch* into his L1.

19.9.- ...hay más frases **unoficiales** en inglés...

The term *unoficiales* is a *coinage of a new word*, based on the English word, *unofficial*. The participant has adapted the term to his L2 by adding the suffix *-es*, used to form the plural of masculine nouns.

19.10.- Sí, **yusualmente** mi familia va a la playa....

In this case, the word *yusualmente* is a *coinage of a new word*, based on the phonetic sound of the English term *usually*, whose initial ‘u’ sounds like a ‘y’.

19.11.- ...se llama Kyowa, *es* sobre una hora de Hilton Head.

...pero mi hermano *es* en un grupo de música.

The speaker has made two *semantic extensions*, as the verb *to be* is polysemous and means both ‘*ser*’ and ‘*estar*’ and the speaker should have used the verb ‘*estar*’ rather than ‘*ser*’.

19.12.- Dos grupos de música, musicales y su *banda*.

The noun *banda* is the result of a *semantic extension* of the English term, *band*, which is polysemous and means: 1: something that confines or constricts while allowing a degree of movement; 2: something that binds or restrains legally, morally, or spiritually; 3: a strip serving to join or hold things together: as *a: belt* *2b: a cord or strip across the back of a book to which the sections are sewn; and also: a group of persons, animals, or things; especially: a group of musicians organized for ensemble playing*. This last concept is that which the speaker has taken. In Spanish, the term is not precisely wrong but it is not totally appropriate, as the word means, as defined by the DRAE: **6.** f. Conjunto de tambores y cornetas, o de músicos que pertenecen a institutos armados de a pie, o de trompetas que sirven en cuerpos montados del Ejército. A veces la *banda* comprende toda clase de instrumentos de viento. **7.** f. Conjunto de instrumentistas, con o sin cantantes, que interpreta alguna forma de música popular”. As the speaker is talking about a music group and not to a group of singers that play popular music, he has chosen an inappropriate word. He should have said *grupo* instead.

19.13.- ...fue al *haspital* y cuando un miembro del Congreso....

The word *haspital* is a *lexical invention* based on the phonetic sound of the English word *hospital*.

4.2.20.- Participant 20 (P20)

20.1.-...*discusiones* entre los profesores y los alumnos...

The word *discusiones* is a *false cognate* of the English term *discussion*. A *discussion* is a *conversation*, whereas, *discusión* means an *argument*. The speaker meant to use the term *conversaciones*.

20.2.-...*me gusta esta intimecia*. No sé la palabra.

The speaker has made a *lexical invention*, based on the English noun *intimacy*. This noun is non-existent in Spanish.

20.3.- ...*por eso el profesor o la profesora no puede hablar con estudiantes individuales y tiene que hablar de la auditorio*.

The participant has made a *calque* of his L1 by literally translating the word *audience* into *auditorio*, which in Spanish means: “**1.**m. Concurso de oyentes. **2.** m. Sala destinada a conciertos, recitales, conferencias, coloquios, lecturas públicas, etc. **3.** m. ant. Lugar para dar audiencias” (DRAE). The speaker meant that (*el profesor necesita hablar con todos los asistentes a clase*); therefore, should have used the term *asistentes* instead.

20.4.- ...*pero me encanta la lengua y más luego no puede dejar de tomar clases*...

The speaker has made a *coinage of a new expression* by basing the terms *más luego* on the English adverb *later*. *Later* is a comparative adverb of superiority, which the speaker has reproduced in Spanish by using the comparative particle *más*. However, the participant has not realized that the word *luego* already means *más tarde*; therefore, the use of the comparative *más* is unnecessary. He should have said either, *luego* or *más tarde*.

20.5.- ...*pero me encanta la lengua y más luego no puede dejar de tomar* clases...

The verb *tomar*, in this context, is a *semantic extension* of the English term *take*, which is polysemous and is used to talk about following a course, spending time, transporting from one place to another.... In Spanish, the right verb, in this case, is *dar* or *ir a*. Therefore, the participant should have said: *y más tarde puedo dejar de dar/ir a clases*.

20.6.- *Quiero convertir en maestra de la escuela primaria y **nursery**.*

The speaker has made an *unintentional language switch* to his L1.

20.7.- *...Carolina del Norte, porque hay montañas y también **es** cerca de la playa...*

*...dónde **es** muy cerca de la playa.*

The speaker has made two *semantic extensions*, as the verb *to be* is polysemous and means both ‘*ser*’ and ‘*estar*’ and the speaker should have used the verb ‘*estar*’ rather than ‘*ser*’.

20.8.- *No quiero vivir tan cerca de mis padres **portodo mi vida**...*

*Y después enseñan a los niños esta historia y va a recordarlo **por toda su vida**.*

In these two cases, the use of the term *por* is a *collocational transfer* of the terms that frequently co-occur in English *for + period of time*. The speaker has used the English combination when speaking Spanish, when he should have used *durante + period of time*.

20.9.- *Pues **por coche** es tres y media horas.*

The words *por coche* is the result of a *collocational transfer* of the English co-occurrence of words *by car*, used to express the way an individual moves from one place to another. However, in Spanish the words that conventionally co-occur are: *en coche*.

20.10.- *Pués por coche es **tres y media horas**.*

The participant has made a *collocational transfer* of the words that commonly co-occur in his L1: *three and a half hours*. In Spanish, he should have said: *Pués en coche se tarda tres horas y media*, placing the noun *horas* immediately after the expression of the total number of complete hours.

20.11.- *Sí, tengo que estudiar mucho y **estoy**, no sé, un oficial de un club.*

*...porque están acostumbrados a la religión no **son** muy invucrados...*

The speaker has made two *semantic extensions*, as the verb *to be* is polysemous and means both ‘*ser*’ and ‘*estar*’ and the speaker should have used the verb ‘*ser*’ rather than ‘*estar*’ in the first place, and ‘*estar*’ rather than ‘*ser*’, in the second.

20.12.- *Sí, tengo que estudiar mucho y estoy, no sé, un **oficial** de un club.*

*Pero los **oficiales** dos veces y también vamos a la misa.*

The speaker has used a *false cognate* of the English word *oficial*, which, according to *Merriam Webster Dictionary* means: 1: one who holds or is invested with an office. While in the participant's L2, *oficial*, means, according to *DRAE*: 5.m. Hombre que se ocupa o trabaja en un oficio. The two meanings are related but are different, while the forms are identical when used in singular.

20.13.- *...por eso tengo que **gastar** mucho tiempo trabajando...*

The verb *gastar*, in this case, is the result of a *semantic extension* of the English verb *spend*, which is polysemous and is therefore, linked to two different concepts, *spend time* and *spend money*. In Spanish, *spend (time)* is *pasar (tiempo)*, while *spend (money)* is *gastar (dinero)*. As the speaker is talking about time he should have used the verb *pasar*.

20.14.- *Pues, tengo que decir qué vamos a **discutir**...*

*...por eso pregunto muchas preguntas para mover la **discusión**...*

The words *discutir* and *discusión* are *false cognates* of the English verb *discuss* and of the noun *discussion* respectively. The verb *discuss* means to *talk/converse*, while the verb *discutir* means *argue*; a *discussion* is a *conversation*, whereas, *discusión* means an *argument*. The speaker meant to use the verb *talk* and the noun *conversación*.

20.15.- *...y por eso **pregunto muchas preguntas**.*

The speaker has made a *calque* of the English sentence *I ask many questions*. In Spanish, it is repetitive to use the verb *preguntar* together with the noun *preguntas*; therefore, to avoid repetition we use the verb *hacer* instead – *hacer preguntas*.

20.16.- *...quién le **impress**...*

The term *impress* is an *unintentional language switch* to the speaker's L1.

20.17.- *...filosofías muy **afuera** de la religión.*

The participant has made a *calque* of the English term *away*, as in *away from religion*. The speaker has made a translation of the English term into Spanish.

20.18.- ...*porque están acostumbrados a la religión no son muy **invucrados**...*

The adjective *invucrados* is a *coinage of a new word*, which is based on the English adjective *involved*. The speaker adds the correct suffix *-dos* but forgets to use the syllable *-lu* before adding that suffix.

20.19.- *Él **parece** mucho **como** indígena, pero mi padre **parece** mucho, mucho **como** irlandés.*

The speaker has made a *collocational transfer* of the English phrasal verb *look like*. The speaker has maintained such collocation when, in Spanish, this collocation does not occur, as we say, *parece indígena*.

20.20.- ...ellos **pasan un ley** o un acto dónde quieren ir a este país a ayudar.

The participant has made a *collocational transfer* of the conventional co-occurrence of words in his L1: *pass a law*. In Spanish, we say *aprobar una ley* instead.

20.21.- *Pero es verdadero para **buscar por** esos recursos...*

...y en las universidades todavía aprender esto y **buscar por** la causa de la violencia.

The words *buscar por* are a *collocational transfer* of the English phrasal verb *look for*. The verb *buscar* does not require any preposition after it, so we say *buscar la causa de la violencia*.

20.22.- ...el **resulto** de esto era que mucha gente...

The word *resulto* is a *lexical invention*, based on the English noun *result*. The speaker has added the suffix *-o* to create a masculine noun.

NEGATIVE LEXICAL TRANSFER

| LEXEMIC | | | | LEMATIC | | | |
|--|--|---|--|---|--|---|--|
| False Cognate | Unintentional Language Switch/Borrowing | Coinage of New word/Lexical invention | Coinage of New expression | Semantic extension | Calque | Collocational transfer | Subcategorization transfer |
| ¿ Menor? (4.6) | Porque es business (1.5) | Fui a Francia para voluntar en Lourdes (1.15) | La fin de semana antes de la pasada (1.1) | Es muy emocional (1.21) | Universidad hermana (1.4) | Depende en (1.2) | Y la tarea es para hablar con... (1.9) |
| En el pasado viví en un dormitorio (4.31) | Pero es still (1.6) | Un programa para ir voluntar (1.17) | En la otra mano , mis amigos (2.3) | Muchos sienten mejor en la mente, pero todavía sienten mejor. (1.26) | Visité la gente del terreno (1.19) | Un otra universidad (1.3) | No vamos a hacer algocomo así (2.4) |
| Y eventualmen te , puede ser violento (5.40) | No sé, like si ellos (1.7) | Solo quiere experienciar (1.31) | El punto de una sala de relajar es para (2.31) | los que están muy religiosos (1.29) | No tengo muchos cuentos sobre los Yankees (1.35a) | Las preguntas que tengo que preguntarle (1.10) | Yo creo que es Google o algo como así (2.30) |
| Hice soportar para el presidente (6.15) | ...más libertad so (1.8) | Tengo un amigo que hícelo (1.40) | El punto de una sala de relajar es para, como el nombre dice (2.32) | el agua es muy importante a ellos (1.30) | Mi casa no fue afectada (2.15) | Algo que no tengo confianza en (1.12) | La caja contiene una pintura o algo como así (2.30) |
| Creo que no estaba muy confortable con (6.26) | El español que necesito en una oficina or (1.11) | Tenemos muchos habladores (2.2) | Sólo esta semana porque son profes y es su descanso de primavera (5.25) | Todos niños son : ¡Oh, qué bonito! (1.38) | como dos esquinas lejos (2.16) | Un poco demasiado como lasiglesias , a veces, son. (1.23) | Yo podría encontrar más felis en la naturaleza o algo como así (2.30) |
| Muchas compañías no necesitan llevar un traje, es más casual (6.69) | So salimos al bare (1.13) | Él puede hacer los inmigrantes iligales , ligal. (2.7) | ¿ Qué es el punto? (6.79) | El trabajo es a un restaurante (2.1) | Los bajos completamente llenos de agua (2.17) | ...porque Lourdes dalos esperanza. (1.24) | Fue un poco más difícil para hablar (3.1) |
| Pero Madrid es la ciudad muy larga (7.13) | Ah, cert (certain) , unos tapas, a mi no me gustan (1.14) | Él puede hacer los inmigrantes iligales, ligal (2.8) | Sí, sí, entre, o, a parte de una estudia más grande (9.7) | Todo en Nueva Jersey es cerca de Nueva York (2.36) | Las casas no podrían ha sido arreglada (2.19) | No tengo muchos cuentos sobre los Yankees (1.35b) | Y es interesante para mirar en las (3.15) |
| ... de unas películas y discusiones con mis amigos (9.12) | Mi instituto era Católico y del mismo tipo, es como Marist (1.16) | Necesitas satisficar a todo (2.9) | Porque, en realidad, más de todo es que tengo unaño libre (9.14) | Él está en la escuela todavía (2.14) | Entonces no estaba ahí cuando lo pasó (2.22) | Ella parece como alguien que trabaja ahí (1.39) | Es difícil para practicar (3.15) |

NEGATIVE LEXICAL TRANSFER

| LEXEMIC | | | | LEMATIC | | | |
|--|--|--|--|---|--|---|---|
| False Cognate | Unintentional Language Switch/Borrowing | Coinage of New word/Lexical invention | Coinage of New expression | Semantic extension | Calque | Collocational transfer | Subcategorization transfer |
| Antes de empezar mis estudios de Historia... tomaba discusiones con... (9.12) | Los Pilgrims , las personas que visitan (1.18) | los mejicanos quieren muverse (2.10) | Más que todo , para, por Madrid, específicamente me gusta (9.14) | Yo estaba en el colegio (2.20) | Fue un programa que usa un guía (3.6) | Podemos votar para nuestros líderes (2.5) | Es fácil por los mejicanos para obtener (3.15) |
| Pero pienso que están teniendo una discusión para un club.(9.12) | No pueden caminar porque están in silla con ruedas (1.20) | He voluntado para arreglar casas (2.18) | Porque en realidad, más que todo , es que tengo un año libre (9.35) | Cuando el huracán venido (2.21) | Pero no he venido allí (4.23) | He estado en Méjico, los buenas partes , nunca he estado en los partes malos (2.6) | Mi otra profesora es difícil para entender (4.2) |
| Trabajaba... como asistente ... (9.18) | Es muy emocional, especially (1.22) | Entonces es unjusto (2.26) | Más que todo , para, por Madrid...(9.35) | Pero escopturas son muy bien a mí ... (2.33) | Los tiempos de cenar es ...(4.27) | y seguridad de salud (2.25) | Quiero estudiar español y es mejor para estudiar aquí (4.12) |
| No me ayudarían a aplicar a las universidades (9.19) | Pero console a ellos un poco (1.25) | La persona que dueña la bicicleta (2.34) | Todo de su carrera, más que todo , el ha ganado (9.35) | Es mal a mí (2.33) | Las personas son más emocionada (4.35) | No sé qué yo voy a hacer (2.44) | Quiero aprender sobre la cultura (6.90) |
| El examen necesario para su aplicación a las universidades (9.19) | el agua es gratis, so (1.27) | ¿Cómo se dice? ¿ Basquetas ? (2.35) | Yo voy a meter mi pie en la puerta (10.26) | Ellos son , están enfermos (2.36) | Estaba muy divertido el atmosférico (4.41) | Aprendimos de la Historia (3.3) | No sé mucho, no conozco mucho sobre baseball (7.32b) |
| No tenía tiempo para preparar ... mi aplicación (9.19) | Ven si quiere, like (1.28) | Yo puedo gustar escolpturas pero (2.42) | Una Organización Sin Gobierno (11.5) | No sé por qué pero ellos son , están todos sonoriendo (2.38) | Entonces, próximo año seguí con español (5.3) | Fue interesante aprender de la Historia (3.3) | No conozco nada sobre el fútbol americano (7.32b) |
| Voy a enseñar inglés a los individuales (9.29) | Algo diferente, or (1.32) | Pero escolpturas son muy bien a mí (2.42) | No tenía tiempo para conseguir un vota de ausencia (13.23) | Hay mucha gente que a veces son más, no están amables (3.2) | Hace 5 años sin una clase de español (5.4) | Pero quiero ir un otra vez a Praga (3.7) | Me gustaría hacerlo pero temo por altura (7.48) |

NEGATIVE LEXICAL TRANSFER

| LEXEMIC | | | | LEMMAIC | | | |
|--|--|---|--|--|--|--|---|
| False Cognate | Unintentional Language Switch/Borrowing | Coinage of New word/Lexical invention | Coinage of New expression | Semantic extension | Calque | Collocational transfer | Subcategorization transfer |
| En el primer grado (13.3) | I mean (1.33) | Peruviana (2.43) | ...pero me encanta la lengua y más luego no puede dejar... (20.4) | Fue un programa que... (3.5) | Porque no he tomado ningunas clases (5.6) | Pero un otro vez quiero (3.7) | ¿Sí? Y es mejor para hablar español (8.3) |
| Porque en el séptimo grado (13.3) | ¿Cómo se dice camp ? (1.34) | Sí, fue en el hastel (3.4) | | En este viaje no, no pienso (3.8) | Él sonríe y hay luz en todo... (5.16) | Pero parece como , que las personas son muy amables (3.9) | Yo creo que la Filosofía te enseña cómo pensar (10.3) |
| ...porque también querían drama (13.32) | La película A Christmas Story (1.36) | Y no experiencia toda la cultura (3.11) | | No quiero hablar porque es un poco, estoy un poco tímido (3.16) | La gente del Medio Oeste (5.19) | Y ella ayúdame mucho (3.10) | Es interesante para hacer eso (10.15) |
| Y después voy a atender a una universidad (16.6) | Es muy cheesy (1.37) | Yo aprendí la lengua mejicana, los acentos y palabras más común en Méjico (3.14) | | Y es fácil por los mejicanos (3.17a) | Entonces yo no hice nada mal (5.32) | He estudiado español por cuatro años (3.12) | Es difícil para memorizar todo de eso (10.17) |
| Es difícil para discutir (16.17) | So , tal vez, este verano (1.41) | Después de eso voy a mover a Tejas (3.21) | | Pero por ellos es sólo de Historia (3.17a) | Es un partido social (5.34) | Los clases es dos horas clase por dos días cada semana (3.12) | Antes era mucho más fácil para aprender (13.21) |
| Un poco muy antes de empieza...la demonstración (16.19) | A través Gibraltar (2.11) | Cuando yo atempto a aprender un otro lengua (3.25) | | ...terminé colegio fui Colorado por la Universidad (3.20) | Siempre hay el próximo año (5.36) | Pienso que puedo pagar por más (3.13) | Hay mucha...y es algo muy bueno para hablar dos idiomas (14.7) |
| Hay algunas huelgas y demonstraciones (16.19) | Cerca de, well , pues (2.12) | Y es lo misma grada y nivel (3.27) | | Mis hermanas están estudiando en Dallas y es muy cerca (3.23) | Hay un próximo año (5.36) | ...porque no necesitan aprender tan mucho (3.17b) | Es difícil para discutir (16.16) |
| Muchos festivos , desface de child (17.1) | Mi mejor amigo es de, well , pues él vive aquí (2.12) | ¿Es Madagascar ? (3.29) | | Personas en escuelas o universidades están americanas (3.24) | Sí, personal , catorce (6.2) | Pues aprendí de la Historia también (3.18) | |
| Todos nosotros son el mismo grado (19.2) | Él está en NY intentando ser una DJ (2.13) | Eran en un zuológico (3.30) | | Es una película por niños (3.31) | Yo estaba en el militar (6.4) | He vivido en Minnesota por dieciséis años (3.19) | |

NEGATIVE LEXICAL TRANSFER

| LEXEMIC | | | | LEMATIC | | | |
|--|---|---|---------------------------|--|---|---|----------------------------|
| False Cognate | Unintentional Language Switch/Borrowing | Coinage of New word/Lexical invention | Coinage of New expression | Semantic extension | Calque | Collocational transfer | Subcategorization transfer |
| El tercer grado de la universidad (19.2) | Fue, wow , como (2.23) | Es una película de animales que viajan a un zuológico (3.30) | | Eran en un zuológico y (3.32) | Y la agua toda, siempre hace frío (6.12) | Empecé a buscar por un trabajo (3.22) | |
| Empecé a estudiar en un sexto grado (19.2) | Un trabajo en el que tiene benefits (2.24) | Y los zapatos de Nike es yuniverrsal (3.34) | | Sí, ella es muy emocionada (3.32) | El militar (6.19) | Cuando yo atempto aprender un otro lengua (3.26) | |
| Discusiones entre los profesores... (20.1) | Ellos va a vivir vidas que no son, shit (2.27) | Sí, pero no estoy fuente (4.8) | | Y eso es en inglés, las palabras (3.32) | Era muy sobre los negocios (6.24) | Pero cuando studio un otro sitio (3.26) | |
| Sí, tengo que...y estoy un oficial de un club (20.12) | I'm losing it (2.28) | Hay apartunidades conenergía reusable (4.18) | | Banderas, pero no están de americanas (3.33) | Creo que el trabaja en, o posible (6.40) | Un otro país (3.26) | |
| Pero los oficiales dos veces (20.12) | Yeah, it's pretty tough (2.29) | Hay apartunidades con energía reusable (4.19) | | Y las ruedas están amarillas también (3.33) | En general mis rodillas no son muy buenas (6.41) | Eran en un zuológico y fueron un otro (3.26) | |
| Pues tengo que decir qué vamos a discutir (20.14) | Están enfermos or viejos (2.37) | Es mi feivorito (4.43) | | Lo mismo colegio ¿Universidad? (4.4) | Muchas personas que dicen que les gusta un equipo no miran muchos de los partidos (6.44) | Y, en los EEUU, mucha gente que estudian (3.28) | |
| Por eso...para mover la discusión (20.14) | Me gusta Hockey and Lacross (2.39) | Y la vida es aquí más despacia (5.20) | | Sí, pero no estoy fuente (4.7) | Me gustaba LosCuarenta y Nueve (6.49) | Jugaba baseball por seis años (3.35) | |
| | Me gusta juga, practicar basketball (2.40) | Pues hace veinte milas (5.26) | | Pero, por mis estudios de Medio Ambiente (4.14) | Son todos rotos (6.57) | He aprendido mucho sobre los países (4.21) | |
| | Hay un goal aquí (2.41) | Con un mezclado de gente (5.29) | | Me parece que es bien (4.24) | Y ellos también no pueden (6.89) | Los tiempos de cenar es (4.26) | |
| | And the clases es (4.3) | No era una función de transportación (6.43) | | Las personas son amables para, ¿por mí? (4.33) | La gente ayuda muchísimo para comprender, y | Yo me fui a la casa con mis padres por dos años (5.13) | |

NEGATIVE LEXICAL TRANSFER

| LEXEMIC | | | | LEMATIC | | | |
|---------------|---|---|---------------------------|---|--|--|----------------------------|
| False Cognate | Unintentional Language Switch/Borrowing | Coinage of New word/Lexical invention | Coinage of New expression | Semantic extension | Calque | Collocational transfer | Subcategorization transfer |
| | | | | | también arreglar mis (7.16) | | |
| | Sí, y español es mi minor (4.5) | Es bueno para mí porque he experimentado (6.77) | | Sí ¿ Sabes ? (4.38) | Calque | ...y voy a intentar cambiar en español (5.15) | |
| | ¿ Minor ? (4.5) | ...es mal cosa que yo estoy frustrado cuando comito errores (7.23) | | ¿ Sabes Runway? (4.38) | Es mal pero (7.18) | Creo que quiero volver aquí para enseñar inglés por un año (5.17) | |
| | So , un año (4.9) | Este estructura es un pieza de arte (7.39) | | Sí, estaba muy divertido (4.40) | Pero es mal cosa que yo (7.22) | Mi padre estaba allí por veinte años (5.27) | |
| | Well, hold on (4.10) | Me gusta trabajar en el cuadros (7.42) | | Y luego quería tomar una clase de francés. (5.2) | No, estoy, es mal cosa que yo estoy frustrada (7.22) | Y él le gusta mejor ahora (5.28) | |
| | Y, well , pero (4.11) | No hay otra persona en la, en el erea (7.44) | | Tomado clase (5.2) | ...frustradas con el gobierno, porque el paro (7.28) | Sí, sí, nos trajeron abajo (5.33) | |
| | Es mejor para estudiar aquí, but , pero (4.13) | Es muy difícil para muvarse de los EEUU (7.50) | | Yo tomo mis clases de negocios (5.5) | Me gustaría hacerlo pero temo por altura (7.47) | No es un partido para mirar (5.35) | |
| | Tien, yes , tienen problemmas (4.15) | Quiero trabajar con los niños con ¿ deshabilidades ? (8.2) | | Porque no he tomado ningunas clases (5.5) | Aquí está muy, mucho calor (8.4) | Porque la gente esperaba en una fila por días (5.37) | |
| | Hold on (4.16) | Es un poco confusado (8.7) | | Pero todavía , mi nivel es bastante bien (5.7) | Pero en Vermont es 7° (8.5) | He hecho para, pues na más para nueve y media horas (5.38) | |
| | So, I'll think of this on my head, so (4.17) | Porque la lengua es un poco difícil y el acentos (8.8) | | Esas familias son más ¿ cerca ? (5.9) | Porque es un tiempo mala en la Historia(8.17) | Que un otro par de zapatos (5.39) | |
| | Right , sí, es un ejemplo (4.20) | Las personas son un poco errogante (8.19) | | Entonces no estoy cercano con su familia (5.11) | Decidí asistir...para establecer una reunión con mis amigos...(9.5) | Sí, pero por cinco años (6.3) | |

NEGATIVE LEXICAL TRANSFER

| LEXEMIC | | | | LEMATIC | | | |
|---------------|---|---|---------------------------|--|---|--|----------------------------|
| False Cognate | Unintentional Language Switch/Borrowing | Coinage of New word/Lexical invention | Coinage of New expression | Semantic extension | Calque | Collocational transfer | Subcategorization transfer |
| | Y, well , pero no he (4.22) | La empieza de la guerra (9.8) | | Sólo se preocupan en sus propias cosas (5.18) | La empieza de la Guerra Mundial Dos (9.9) | Tenían temperaturas menos que 0° Fahrenheit (6.8) | |
| | Me gusta ¿ meals ? (4.25) | Trabajaba para un año...como paralegal (9.17) | | Pués a cada sitio (5.21) | España no tenía un impacto importante en la Guerra Mundial 2 (9.9) | Tenía más que veinte personas (6.21) | |
| | Sí, en los bars , sí (4.28) | En Los Estados tenemos un tipo de ¿ Agua melón ? (9.28) | | Pero es lleno de extranjeros (5.42) | Estudian mucho, por supuesto, de la Guerra Mundial Dos (9.9) | Había más que dos mil personas en la ciudad (6.28) | |
| | Sí, bars (4.28) | Ha cambiado, ... muvi ó a un apartamento (9.37) | | Al nivel 8 (6.1) | No sé lo que dice sobre yo (9.10) | No relación (6.33) | |
| | When I drink (4.29) | Cerca de... y tenía que mover mis cosas (9.37) | | Ahora es inactive in Wisconsin (6.7) | Sí, yo sé (9.11) | No cultura (6.34) | |
| | Necesito aprender a cocinar mucho, no, more (4.30) | ... papel de arena en apartamento (9.39) | | Ahora es mejor pero este invierno (6.7) | Porque después de estudios universidades (9.15) | Creo que prefiero los negocios extranjeros (6.37) | |
| | ¿Por mí? ¿ To me ? (4.34) | Es mejor... es mejor correr que biciclar (9.41) | | Me gustan las ciudades que eran (6.10) | Quería...entre la conclusión de mis estudios universidades (9.15) | Me gustaría practicar deportes para, sólo para divertido (6.42) | |
| | Excited, happy (4.36) | Que yo tengo que desarrollar para la yuniversidad (10.1) | | Que son cerca de la playa (6.11) | Que es el examen necesario...y, también , no tenía tiempo...(9.25) | Para mí no es un razón para gustar un equipo (6.45) | |
| | ¿Cómo se dice Spaniards ? (4.37) | La idia es, a mí, es muy importante (10.2) | | Era muy sobre los negocios (6.23) | Sí, pero en Los Estados (9.26) | Que tenían por muchos años (6.54) | |
| | Mi padre es un engineer (4.39) | Algo como eso y consultado de arte (12.8) | | Los bares eran , estaban llenos (6.29) | El pescado aquí es más fresco que en Los Estados (9.26) | Es todo un nuevo equipo (6.55) | |

NEGATIVE LEXICAL TRANSFER

| LEXEMIC | | | | LEMATIC | | | |
|---------------|---|---|---------------------------|---|---|---|----------------------------|
| False Cognate | Unintentional Language Switch/Borrowing | Coinage of New word/Lexical invention | Coinage of New expression | Semantic extension | Calque | Collocational transfer | Subcategorization transfer |
| | Es muy largo too (4.42) | No tienen muchas apartunidades (12.23) | | No sé si quiero completar (6.35) | Hoy comí...porque es la temporada por manzanas en Los Estados (9.26) | No sé qué ocurrió, su brazo está roto (6.59) | |
| | ¿Cómo se dice box ? (4.44) | Me di cuenta de que fue muy beneficiado (13.4) | | Son todos rotos (6.56) | En Los Estados tenemos un tipo... (9.26) | Amazon en Estados Unidos tiene todo que necesitas (6.62) | |
| | Es una habitación common (4.45) | Pero estoy comitiéndolos cada día, muchos (13.18) | | Hace dos años estaba el invierno (6.66) | Y el hombre...y dos semanas pasadas el jugó (9.33) | Por toda vida (6.63) | |
| | ¿Cómo se dice parachute ? (4.46) | En un erea que se llama San Bernardino (15.7) | | Cuando...y yo vamos a la escuela (6.72) | Porque todo el país a él le gusta mucho (9.34) | Si buscas para (6.64) | |
| | Es un view (4.47) | Cuando él está en el militario (15.16) | | Puedes ir solo si completes un curso (6.74) | Sí, yo sé (9.42) | Tiene todas cosas por todo un año (6.65) | |
| | Porque es desde Kindergarten (5.1) | Hay muchos migrantes de México (16.4) | | Sí, pero soy... mis amigos dicen que soy antiguo (6.75b) | Se puede ver Isla Larga (9.46) | Más o menos porque con la, el internet puedes conectar (6.73) | |
| | ¿Cómo se dice sterotype ? (5.8) | Ellos no tienen problemmas que hablar en esos timas (16.18) | | Todas las personas... han completado... Completar la escuela (6.76) | En mi opinión Filosofía enseñate a cómo pensar (10.5) | Ahora tengo, en lunes voy a tener (6.75a) | |
| | Cada festival, cada holiday (5.10) | Trabajé con un non-lucrativo (17.16) | | He hecho muchos amigos de los programas (6.81) | Espero que tuviera más tiempo aquí (10.9) | Cuando dije a mis amigos que vaya a ir a España por un semestre (6.78) | |
| | ¿Cómo se dice character ? (5.14) | ...porque hay 15% non-documentados (17.17) | | En la Universidad nunca he tomado un clase en español (7.2) | Sí, a mí lo parece bien (10.12) | Conocí tres o cuatro personas y en lunes (6.83) | |
| | Hay basket y hay fútbol (5.22) | Es tan diferente algo que he experimentado antes de eso (18.8) | | Y antes de venirse a España, no creo que sobre la diferencia (7.9) | Es fácil arreglar un plan para un nuevo producto (10.14) | En lunes, en la mañana (6.84) | |

NEGATIVE LEXICAL TRANSFER

| LEXEMIC | | | | LEMATIC | | | |
|---------------|--|--|---------------------------|--|--|---|----------------------------|
| False Cognate | Unintentional Language Switch/Borrowing | Coinage of New word/Lexical invention | Coinage of New expression | Semantic extension | Calque | Collocational transfer | Subcategorization transfer |
| | Hay calles, sí y hay ¿ wall ? (5.23) | ...la gente es todo, es muy embigo ... (18.9) | | Me parece es bien cometer errores (7.21) | Porque es un grande sistema (10.16) | En cinco minutos somos mejores amigos (6.85) | |
| | No quiero cargar, sí eso es la palabra ¿ Load, to load ? (5.24) | Embigo (18.9) | | Quiero tomar una clase en español (7.25) | No, no, mátame (10.19) | Necesitas personas para viajar con (6.87) | |
| | No sé cómo se dice: kicked me out (5.30) | Pero solamente vi el empiezo de la gente pero no el turno (18.13) | | Sí, es muy bien (7.26) | Sí... en el mismo tiempo estoy... (10.20) | O hablar con (6.88) | |
| | Jugamos beerpong ¿Sabes? (5.41) | Pués ... para hulgar (18.14) | | Porque las personas son frustradas con (7.27) | No sé qué yo voy a hacer(10.21) | Es muy diferente que viviendo en los EEUU (7.7) | |
| | Quiero ser como un European aquí (5.43) | Hay más frases unoficiales en inglés (19.9) | | La gente son muy frustradas con el gobierno (7.29) | Y es más fácil que viajar (11.7) | Las personas son, sí, son diferentes que las personas hispánicos (7.7) | |
| | Yo estaba con el Marine Corps (6.5) | Sí, yusualmente mi familia va a la playa (19.10) | | Con esta bicicleta yo monto en la ciudad por ..., por divertir (7.30) | El español..., gente me ha dicho (11.8) | Es muy diferente que viviendo en los EEUU (7.8) | |
| | Ahora es inactive en Wisconsin (6.6) | Fue al haspital y cuando un miembro del Congreso... (19.13) | | No conozco nada sobre el fútbol americano (7.35) | La gente es muy simpática que pensaba (11.9) | Y antes de venirse a España, no creo que sobre... (7.10) | |
| | 0° Fahrenheit (6.9) | ...me gusta esta intimecia (20.2) | | Porque mi familia es muy importante a mí (7.49) | Ella sabe más sobre las políticas en América (11.12) | En España hace muy frío (7.11) | |
| | No sé cómo se dice infantry (6.13) | Porque están...no son muy invucrados (20.18) | | ...en mi escuela en EEUU no.(8.10) | La influencia... más grande que pensaba (11.13) | La gente...me parece, la gente son más(7.14) | |
| | Sí, pero en D.C. hice (6.14) | El resultado de esto es...(20.22) | | ...3 años en mi escuela (8.10) | No hay mucho que no me gusta, no puedo pensar ahora (11.15) | Un hombre me parece como Derek... (7.31) | |

NEGATIVE LEXICAL TRANSFER

| LEXEMIC | | | | LEMATIC | | | |
|---------------|--|---------------------------------------|---------------------------|---|--|--|----------------------------|
| False Cognate | Unintentional Language Switch/Borrowing | Coinage of New word/Lexical invention | Coinage of New expression | Semantic extension | Calque | Collocational transfer | Subcategorization transfer |
| | ¿Inauguration? (6.16) | | | Pero a veces un persona conoce que no soy español (8.12) | Fue al Congreso de los EEUU y preguntó a ellos (11.18) | No sé mucho, no conozco mucho sobre baseball (7.32a) | |
| | Secret Services (6.17) | | | Porque no sé la familia antes (8.15) | Solamente hablo con mi señora y con mis profesores (12.12) | Me gusta baloncesto, pero mirar baseball (7.33) | |
| | F.B.I. (6.18) | | | Pero sé algunas... Franco (8.18) | En los EEUU...son más abierto en otras maneras (12.15) | No tengo ninguna idea sobre el deporte (7.36) | |
| | Los edificios para el parade (6.20) | | | Porque todo es, no, está cerca... (8.23) | Passive agresivo (12.18) | No tengo ninguna idea sobre el deporte (7.37) | |
| | Un periodista, y he threw his , sus zapatos (6.22) | | | Necesito porque mi escuela es 4 horas (8.24) | Pero después gente ayuda mucho (12.20) | Porque en mi segunda vez afuera de mi familia (7.51) | |
| | You know? (6.25) | | | Sí, mi escuela en Vermont... (8.24) | Mis padres me pusieron en un programa de ¿inmersión? (13.1) | Gainsville... está en el norte, dos horas afuera de Orlando (7.52) | |
| | Mi amigo y yo fuimos a Dublin (6.27) | | | Y es similar mi biblioteca en mi escuela (8.24) | Yo podía escoger si yo quería hacerlo (13.5) | Porque todos mis profesores en escuelas son de él ¿ Sur de América? (8.9) | |
| | Eran muchos turistas, pero también los Irish , no sé (6.30) | | | Necesito porque mi escuela es 4 horas (8.25) | No es... ellos hicieron a mí o... (13.14) | Tengo un clase por un hora (8.11) | |
| | Sí, mi padre es de London (6.31) | | | Sí, mi escuela en Vermont es 4 horas (8.25) | Cuando ellas hablan en inglés a mí (13.20) | Vivía en un residencia por tres años (8.11) | |
| | No sé si quiero completar, or (6.36) | | | Un memoria que esto es... (8.28) | Fue muy cerca para que yo he oído (13.31) | Con un otro persona (8.14) | |
| | Necesitaría hacer para un degree (6.38) | | | Recuerdo un memoria es mi mejor... (8.28) | Sí, yo sé (14.8) | Necesito mirarla película El Laberinto del Fauno (8.16) | |

NEGATIVE LEXICAL TRANSFER

| LEXEMIC | | | | LEMATIC | | | |
|---------------|---|---------------------------------------|---------------------------|---|---|---|----------------------------|
| False Cognate | Unintentional Language Switch/Borrowing | Coinage of New word/Lexical invention | Coinage of New expression | Semantic extension | Calque | Collocational transfer | Subcategorization transfer |
| | Un factoría, una farm (6.39) | | | Son mis amigos y desde ellos he oído mucho de la cultura (9.1) | Una ciudad que gente siempre (15.2) | Mi papá enseñó cómo montar en bicicleta (8.29) | |
| | El equipo de fútbol americano, Los Greenbay Packers (6.46) | | | Y en Williams es muy normal tomar un semestre (9.2) | Y hay escuelas y gente está feliz (15.2) | Me gusta el equipo de Yukon más mejor (8.31) | |
| | Me gustó los Red Socks (6.47) | | | Y conocía a Franco (9.13) | Porque... para votar afuera de los EEUU (15.9) | Y en Williams... pasar un semestre en otro país que en EEUU (9.3) | |
| | Red Sockers de Washington D.C. , (6.48) | | | Semantic extension | Pues en los años recientes , cuando (15.10) | El principio de mi interés de España... (9.6) | |
| | Los Forty Niners (6.50) | | | Estaba preparando por un juicio (9.21) | Y no sé qué es la situación... (15.11) | Trabajaba por un año (9.16) | |
| | Los Forty Niners de San Francisco (6.51) | | | Y a mí muy importante (9.22) | Sí, en la elección anterior he votado (15.13) | Quiero tomar ventaja de la oportunidad (9.20) | |
| | Los The Packers (6.52) | | | Tenía tiempo para preparar..., tomar el SAT (9.23) | Y después... habló enfrente de mucha gente (15.14) | Ya tengo dos, por seguro (9.30) | |
| | Sus quarterback (6.53) | | | Pienso..uno más estudiantes desde amigos (9.31) | Él encontró a ella (15.15) | Estoy refiriéndome más sobre su personalidad (9.36) | |
| | Todos porque tienen walkers (6.58) | | | En aviones está bien pero está bastante (9.32) | Hay muchos años (16.7) | Y no importa para mí (9.38) | |
| | Sí, por UPS (6.60) | | | Pensaba un poco de comprar (9.40) | ¿ Cuál tipo? (16.8) | Pienso que para los aviones personales (9.45) | |
| | Amazon dot com (6.61) | | | Monté en un moto... en su espalda (9.43) | Hay mucha atención sobre este tema (16.22) | Mi madre aquí en España me dijo sobre un instituto (10.11) | |
| | Creo que es Google (6.67) | | | Él es un poco loco (9.44) | Es difícil estudiar cuando estamos en un ambiente (17.3) | Es difícil para memorizar todo de eso (10.18) | |

NEGATIVE LEXICAL TRANSFER

| LEXEMIC | | | | LEMMAIC | | | |
|---------------|---|---------------------------------------|---------------------------|--|--|--|----------------------------|
| False Cognate | Unintentional Language Switch/Borrowing | Coinage of New word/Lexical invention | Coinage of New expression | Semantic extension | Calque | Collocational transfer | Subcategorization transfer |
| | Toda la gente tienen laptops (6.68) | | | Las aplicaciones de la Filosofía son (10.4) | ...y podemos hacerque queremos (17.6) | Ellos son más viejos que normal (10.23) | |
| | Estaba jugado Flappy Bird (6.70) | | | Entonces es, a mí es muy importante (10.6) | ...para ser un estudiante total (17.8) | No sé, no soy preocupado sobre eso (10.28) | |
| | Están escuchando una presentación o, or qué (6.71) | | | Lo siento, todo va a ser bien (10.8) | ... son más sencillas porque la cultura (17.9) | Porque hay muchos servicios como en el hospital (11.1) | |
| | Well , he hecho muchos amigos (6.80) | | | Quizá yo voy a perder mis habilidades (10.10) | Tiene dos hijos pero son crecidos (18.4) | Y quiere saber más idiomas que inglés (11.3) | |
| | Este fin de semana pasado en Dublin (6.82) | | | Voy a ser ayudando a (10.22) | Hay que ser...muy especial a trabajar (18.7) | La mujer que vivo con (11.10) | |
| | Estamos en el programa que, you know , no... (6.86) | | | No sé, no soy preocupado (10.27) | Sí, yo sé . (19.6) | Ella sabe más sobre las políticas en América (11.11) | |
| | En el colegio aprendía algo de esp, well , no. Well , vivo en...(7.1) | | | El dinero a mí es importante (10.29) | Por eso el profesor...y tiene que hablar de la auditorio (20.3) | Lo llevaba a EEUU a tener una operación (11.17) | |
| | Quiero visitar más places (7.3) | | | Otros trabajos que se sirve los residentes de EEUU (11.2) | Y por eso pregunto muchas preguntas (20.15) | ...de su labio (11.16) | |
| | Quiero visitar más places , I mean (7.4) | | | Pero España es cerca del resto de Europa (11.6) | ...filosofías muy afuera de la religión (20.17) | Tenía un problema con sus labios (11.16) | |
| | Mis padres viven en la costa, so vivo... (7.5) | | | ...tienes ganas de hablar con mucha gente, sí, muy sociales (11.14) | | Quiero estudiar la Historia del Arte... obtener un PhD (12.1) | |
| | Creo que el tiempo es similar a Florida, so (7.5) | | | Las chicas jóvenes no son tan sociales (11.14) | | Y un otra (12.4) | |

NEGATIVE LEXICAL TRANSFER

| LEXEMIC | | | | LEMATIC | | | |
|---------------|--|---------------------------------------|---------------------------|--|--------|--|----------------------------|
| False Cognate | Unintentional Language Switch/Borrowing | Coinage of New word/Lexical invention | Coinage of New expression | Semantic extension | Calque | Collocational transfer | Subcategorization transfer |
| | Mi impresión es un país muy bonita, or , bonito (7.6) | | | Las chicas jóvenes no son tan sociales (11.14) | | Algo como eso (12.7) | |
| | Por eso estoy, or la diferencia (7.6) | | | Necesito dos lenguajes y... (12.3) | | Algo como así (12.7) | |
| | ...la gente, or , ne parece (7.6) | | | Porque si toma muchas clases... (12.10) | | Salimos por la noche,... hablamos con muchas gente ... (12.9) | |
| | La gente son más distantes que las ciudades, or , or , los pueblos (7.6) | | | Depende en su objeto (12.14) | | Es bueno pero no hablamos tan mucho (12.11) | |
| | Cada domingo tenemos, or , sí, tenemos una cena (7.6) | | | No bastante , porque son más (12.16) | | Depende en su objeto (12.13) | |
| | How can I say this? (7.15) | | | Son muy agresivo (12.19) | | Por eso la gente tienen más oportunidades (12.22) | |
| | Quiero hacer perfectamente, or , se, or , (7.17) | | | Pude recibir cosas más caros (12.21) | | Muy bueno , es bonita y limpia (13.8) | |
| | Pero esta, or , es mal cosa (7.17) | | | Mis padres me pusieron en un programa de ¿inmersión? (13.2) | | No me gustan los euros en comparativa a los dólares (13.9) | |
| | Que yo sé, or , me convertir, or , no (7.17) | | | Es muy interesante saber dos lenguajes (13.6) | | Sí, mucho, en comparativo de los EEUU (13.9) | |
| | Depende de la situación es mala, or , es así así (7.17) | | | Entonces es bien para mí (13.7) | | Mi mamá de alojamiento y ... (13.10) | |
| | No es bueno to commit , (wait), repite (7.19) | | | Y mis amigas de mi programa , pero... (13.11) | | Cuando yo... y ellos son en un otro (13.16) | |

NEGATIVE LEXICAL TRANSFER

| LEXEMIC | | | | LEMATIC | | | |
|---------------|---|---------------------------------------|---------------------------|---|--------|---|----------------------------|
| False Cognate | Unintentional Language Switch/Borrowing | Coinage of New word/Lexical invention | Coinage of New expression | Semantic extension | Calque | Collocational transfer | Subcategorization transfer |
| | No es bueno to commit, (wait), repite (7.20) | | | nosé dónde buscar niñas... (13.12) | | Y ahora que... pienso en cómo conjugar mis verbos (13.17) | |
| | Ahora hablo con mis amigas in español (7.24) | | | Para mí... esta escuela es la escuela de ellos (13.13) | | Sé mucho de Obama porque fue el presidente por cuatro años (13.24) | |
| | Y Florida (7.34) | | | Cuando yo... yo soy una mesa y ellos son en (13.15) | | Entonces van a decir las malas cosas sobre Obama (13.27) | |
| | So , mi idea sobre el deporte (7.38) | | | Entonces si él me cuento que va... (13.25) | | Puedes hacer daño a su cuerpo (13.34) | |
| | Para ver la pintura, ..., las cosas in este...(7.40) | | | Entonces yo voy a escuchar eso (13.26) | | Y demostró el internet (13.35) | |
| | Para ver la pintura, or , que, or , (7.41) | | | Pienso que fue muy cerca (13.29) | | El fin (13.37) | |
| | Pueden inventar..., or ,... (7.41) | | | Fue muy cerca para que yo he oído (13.30) | | Yo sé cómo leer (15.1) | |
| | Wait, ¿es mi vida? or , wait (7.41) | | | Donaron...hizo un programa de gramática..(13.33) | | El hombre que yo vivo con (15.3) | |
| | El caimán en el césped, or , en el agua (7.41) | | | Unas veces... como en el programa de drama (13.33) | | Y en esa manera nosotros aprendemos... (15.5) | |
| | Solo en las piscinas, or , la playa (7.41) | | | Mis padres fueron a Escocia de California y yo fui de aquí (14.1) | | Oh, sí, yo he leído sobre (15.8) | |
| | No me gusta trabajar en el sitio, en el cuadros, no, so , me gusta... (7.43) | | | A mí me encanta. Y, no sé, fui allí, a mi colegio... (14.6) | | Sí, yo he seguido las elecciones en la internet (15.12) | |

NEGATIVE LEXICAL TRANSFER

| LEXEMIC | | | | LEMATIC | | | |
|---------------|---|---------------------------------------|---------------------------|--|--------|--|----------------------------|
| False Cognate | Unintentional Language Switch/Borrowing | Coinage of New word/Lexical invention | Coinage of New expression | Semantic extension | Calque | Collocational transfer | Subcategorization transfer |
| | So, yo puedo andar (7.43) | | | No tengo tiempo... si estoy correcto... (15.4) | | Depende en cuál tipo de (16.10) | |
| | El sitio, so , por eso no me gusta (7.43) | | | Mi casa... es también en... (15.6) | | ...muchas personas no hablan sobre sus opiniones (16.12) | |
| | Soy una persona inver, invertó, wait , introvertida (7.45) | | | Yo vivo...cuando no estoy en la escuela (16.1) | | Pero cuando... no hablan sobre política (16.12) | |
| | Wait , ¿en mi vida? Or, wait (7.45) | | | Porque cuando yo estaba un niño (16.2) | | Es comportamiento bueno (16.14) | |
| | ¿ Skydiving ? (7.46) | | | Yo tenía que coger una lengua... (16.3) | | Una persona que quieren hacer algo sobre esos (16.20) | |
| | Porque mi padre trabaja mucho, or , ... (8.1) | | | Pero cuando están con personas que no saben ... (16.13) | | ...de las personas que tienen opiniones fuertes (16.21) | |
| | Trabajo con, or , quiero (8.1) | | | ...es un niño que está , no está joven ahora (16.24) | | Enseñan a esos niños cómo escribir y leer (16.23) | |
| | Sí, porque vivo, or , vivimos (8.1) | | | En la...que estoy tan joven (17.4) | | Algún día navegando la red (17.11) | |
| | Porque vivías en, or , vivía... (8.1) | | | ...me gustaría aprovechar...cuan do estoy tan joven (17.4) | | Depende en ... (17.12) | |
| | Pero en Vermont es 7º, pero en Fahrenheit (8.6) | | | ...tenemos que ... haciendo ensayos (17.5) | | ...y las personas que gusta hablar sobre ...(17.13) | |
| | En Munich , pero es mi familia (8.20) | | | Tengo que hacer todos los sujetos diferentes (17.7) | | ...hablar sobre sus opiniones muy fuertes (17.14) | |
| | En Munich, pero es mi familia, so (8.21) | | | Yo tenía que traducir por ellas (17.18) | | Sí, sus conferencias, diferentes puntos para hacer decisiones (17.15) | |

NEGATIVE LEXICAL TRANSFER

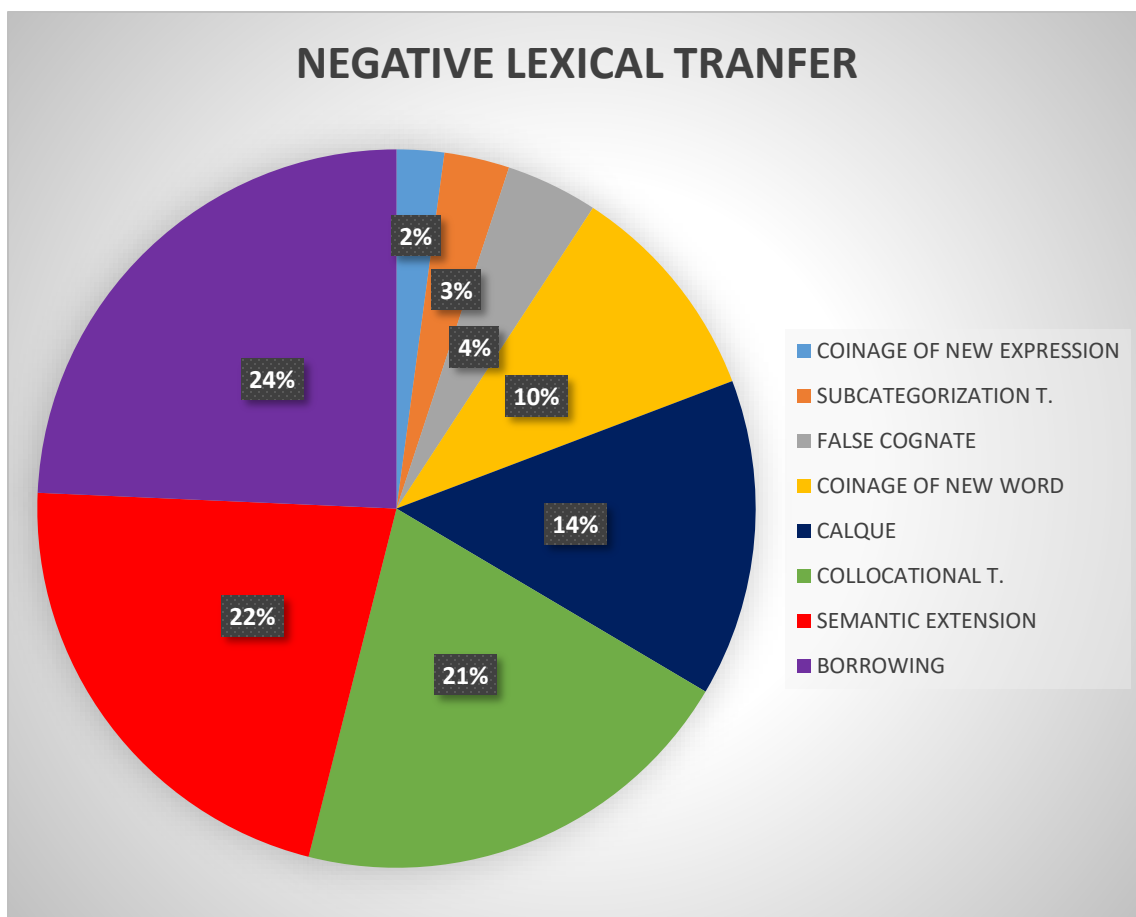
| LEXEMIC | | | | LEMATIC | | | |
|---------------|--|---------------------------------------|---------------------------|--|--------|---|----------------------------|
| False Cognate | Unintentional Language Switch/Borrowing | Coinage of New word/Lexical invention | Coinage of New expression | Semantic extension | Calque | Collocational transfer | Subcategorization transfer |
| | ¿Cómo se dice, friendly ? (8.22) | | | ...a pesar de que no estoy perfecta (17.19) | | No quiero creer sobre esto (19.5) | |
| | What did we do? (8.27) | | | Cuando empecé...sí quería ser más...(18.1) | | No quiero vivir cerca de mis padres por todo mi vida (20.8) | |
| | Me gusta el equipo de Yukon ... (8.30) | | | ...la misma programa (18.2) | | Y después enseñan...y va a recordarlo por todo su vida (20.8) | |
| | No me gusta heights (8.32) | | | También he tomado muchas clases de (18.5) | | Pues por coche es tres y media horas (20.9) | |
| | Decidí asistir a un programa de Boston University (9.4) | | | Sí, tenemos conexiones diferentes (18.3) | | Pues por coche es tres y media horas (20.10) | |
| | Y no tenía tiempo para preparar..., para tomar el SAT (9.24) | | | Tener experiencia en esa área de estudian (18.6) | | Él parece mucho cómo indígena, pero mi padre parece mucho cómo irlandés (20.19) | |
| | Que el pescado, I mean , estoy ... (9.27) | | | Pero para visitar y disfrutar de esa área (18.11) | | Ellos pasan un ley y un acto...(20.20) | |
| | Tengo una tarjeta de index (10.7) | | | Es en mi opinión, no me gusta tampoco de las opciones (18.12) | | Pero es verdadero para buscar por esos recursos (20.21) | |
| | Marketing (10.13) | | | Todos nosotros son el mismo grado (19.1) | | ...y en las universidades...y buscar por la causa de...(20.21) | |
| | Y voy a hacer spreadsheets ... (10.24) | | | No quiero creer sobre esto (19.4) | | | |
| | Y Powerpoints y ¿Excel spreadsheets ? (10.24) | | | Se llama Kyowa, es sobre una hora...(19.11) | | | |
| | Y voy... con Powerpoint (10.25) | | | Pero mi hermano es en un grupo de música (19.11) | | | |

NEGATIVE LEXICAL TRANSFER

| LEXEMIC | | | | LEMATIC | | | |
|---------------|--|---------------------------------------|---------------------------|--|--------|------------------------|----------------------------|
| False Cognate | Unintentional Language Switch/Borrowing | Coinage of New word/Lexical invention | Coinage of New expression | Semantic extension | Calque | Collocational transfer | Subcategorization transfer |
| | Y Powerpoints... (10.25) | | | Dos grupos de música, musicales y su banda (19.12) | | | |
| | Cómo se dice warehouse? (10.30) | | | ...pero me encanta...de tomar clases (20.5) | | | |
| | So , tal vez, este verano. (10.40) | | | Carolina del Norte... es cerca de la playa (20.7) | | | |
| | Pero pienso que voy a trabajar en un NGO (11.4) | | | ...dónde es muy cerca de la playa (20.7) | | | |
| | Para obtener un PhD (12.2) | | | Sí, tengo que... y estoy ...un oficial de un club (20.11) | | | |
| | Que yo sé los requirements de ... (12.5) | | | Porque están...no son muy invuercados (20.11) | | | |
| | ¿ Auction House? (12.6) | | | Por eso tengo que gastar mucho tiempo (20.13) | | | |
| | Porque son más, no sé cómo se dice passive aggressive (12.17) | | | | | | |
| | Es como cuando mis amigos de como, Norway (13.19) | | | | | | |
| | Y después como si, you know (13.22) | | | | | | |
| | Y, en fin, at last , graduaro (13.36) | | | | | | |
| | Hay mucha, se llama, cha, ja, jargon (14.2) | | | | | | |
| | ...¿jargon? Or (14.3) | | | | | | |

| NEGATIVE LEXICAL TRANSFER | | | | | | | |
|---------------------------|--|---------------------------------------|---------------------------|--------------------|--------|------------------------|----------------------------|
| LEXEMIC | | | | LEMATIC | | | |
| False Cognate | Unintentional Language Switch/Borrowing | Coinage of New word/Lexical invention | Coinage of New expression | Semantic extension | Calque | Collocational transfer | Subcategorization transfer |
| | Cuando estaba en Middle School (14.4) | | | | | | |
| | No sé cómo se llama elective (14.5) | | | | | | |
| | ...migrantes de Méjico y Latin America (16.5) | | | | | | |
| | ¿Cuál tipo? ¡Oh! ¡ Wow! (16.9) | | | | | | |
| | Well , dónde yo vivo... (16.11) | | | | | | |
| | I'm , no sé, es difícil (16.15) | | | | | | |
| | Muchos festivos, desface de child (17.2) | | | | | | |
| | Ok , vale. (17.10) | | | | | | |
| | No es claro, es un gran respuesta, como “ vague ” (18.10) | | | | | | |
| | Well , el tercer grado... (19.3) | | | | | | |
| | Quiero ser bilingual(19.7) | | | | | | |
| | I mean , no he aprendido (19.8) | | | | | | |
| | Quiero convertir en maestra...y nursery (20.6) | | | | | | |
| | Quién le impress (20.16) | | | | | | |
| 31 | 183 | 75 | 16 | 163 | 107 | 153 | 22 |

Table 2.-Summary of negative lexical transfers found in this research, and final total numbers in each category



Graph 2.-Representation in percentage of the negative lexical transfers found in this study

After carrying out a careful analysis of the speech of the 20 USA participants, 750 negative lexical transfers have been identified, classified, explained, and found the origin of, both in the category of *lexemic* and *lemmatic* lexical transfers. As for *lexemic*, 31 are *false cognates*, 183 are *borrowings*, 75 are *coinages of new word*, and 16 are *coinages of new expression*; with regards to *lemmatic*, 163 are *semantic extensions*, 107 are *calques*, 153 are *collocational transfers*, and 22 are *subcategorization transfers*. These findings will not be looked into in further detail in this chapter, as the final results are offered in Chapter 5.

4.3.-Results of spanish participants' check

The results of the questionnaire given to SPs to prove the level of comprehension of each negative lexical transfer used by the 20 U.S.A. speakers has been as follows: (Hereon, all participants will be referred to as SP followed by their correlative number).

Each table contains the number given to the negative lexical transfer made by the USA participant that each Spanish speaker has assessed followed by a mark that indicates: X= No answer (As in: I have not understood); √= Yes answer (As in: I have understood); x (w) = Wrong answer (As in: I have understood, when he/she really had not); o=omitted.

4.3.1.-Spanish participant (SP1)

| False cognate | Borrowing | Coinage new word | Coinage new expression | Semantic extension | Calque | Collocational transfer | Subcat. T. |
|---------------|-----------|------------------|------------------------|--------------------|---------|------------------------|------------|
| | 1.5 √ | 1.15 √ | 1.1 √ | 1.21 √ | 1.4 √ | 1.2 √ | 1.9 √ |
| | 1.6 √ | 1.17 √ | | 1.26 √ | 1.19 x | 1.3 √ | |
| | 1.7 √ | 1.31 √ | | 1.29 √ | 1.35a √ | 1.10 √ | |
| | 1.8 x | | | 1.30 √ | | 1.12 √ | |
| | 1.11 √ | | | 1.38 √ | | 1.23 √ | |
| | 1.13 x | | | | | 1.24 √ | |
| | 1.14 x | | | | | 1.35b √ | |
| | 1.16 x | | | | | 1.39 √ | |
| | 1.18 x | | | | | | |
| | 1.20 √ | | | | | | |
| | 1.22 √ | | | | | | |
| | 1.25 √ | | | | | | |
| | 1.27 √ | | | | | | |
| | 1.28 √ | | | | | | |
| | 1.32 √ | | | | | | |
| | 1.33 √ | | | | | | |

| False cognate | Borrowing | Coinage new word | Coinage new expression | Semantic extension | Calque | Collocational transfer | Subcat. T. |
|---------------|-----------|------------------|------------------------|--------------------|--------|------------------------|------------|
| | 1.34 ✓ | | | | | | |
| | 1.36 ✓ | | | | | | |
| | 1.37 ✓ | | | | | | |
| | 1.40 x | | | | | | |
| | 1.41 ✓ | | | | | | |

Table 3.- Results of Spanish speaker 1 comprehension check

Of a total of 41 lexical transfers, as 1 was omitted of the 42 lexical transfers made, 34 were answered as having been understood, and 7 were answered as not having been understood. Of the 34 transfers that were said to have been understood, all were, in fact, understood; and they are: 15 *borrowings*, 7 *collocational transfers*, 5 *semantic extensions*, 3 *coinage of new words*, 3 *calques*, and 1 *subcategorization transfer*. Of the 7 transfers, which were not understood, 5 were *borrowings*, 1 was a *coinage of a new word*, and 1 was a *calque*.

The mentioned 7 not understood lexical transfers are:

So... (Number 1.8,1.13).

Cert (certain) (Number 1.14).

Es como Marist (Number 1.16).

¿Pilgrims? (Number 1.18).

Ayudé la gente del terreno que no puede caminar. (Number 1.19).

Puedo hacerlo porque tengo un amigo que hícelo. (Number 1.40).

What is most interesting of this SP is that she has used the same *coinage of a new word* created by the English-speaking participant to define the term used and created by the English speaker, *voluntar*, and she has used it twice, when she should have used the expression “actuar de voluntario” (numbers 15 & 17). In addition, she has also used the same Semantic extension the English-speaking participant used, to define the meaning of that same term “emocional”, instead of using “emotivo” as she should have (number 21).

4.3.2.-Spanish participant (SP2)

| Falsecognate | Borrowing | Coinagenew word | Coinagenew expression | Semantic extension | Calque | Collocational transfer | Subcat. T. |
|--------------|--------------------|----------------------|-----------------------|---------------------|--------|------------------------|--------------------|
| | 2.11 x | 2.2 x | 2.3 o | 2.1 √ | 2.15√ | 2.5 √ | 2.4 √ |
| | 2.12x ⁷ | 2.7 √ | 2.31 x(w) | 2.14x(w) | 2.16√ | 2.6 √ | 2.30√ ⁸ |
| | 2.13 √ | 2.8x(w) | 2.32 √ | 2.20x(w) | 2.17 √ | 2.25 √ | |
| | 2.23 √ | 2.9 √ | | 2.21 √ | 2.19 √ | 2.44 o | |
| | 2.24 √ | 2.10 √ | | 2.33 √ ⁹ | 2.22 √ | | |
| | 2.27 √ | 2.18 √ | | 2.36 o | | | |
| | 2.28 x(w) | 2.26 √ | | 2.38 √ | | | |
| | 2.29 x | 2.34 √ | | | | | |
| | 2.37 omitted(o) | 2.35 x | | | | | |
| | 2.39 √ | 2.42 √ ¹⁰ | | | | | |
| | 2.40 o | 2.43x(w) | | | | | |
| | 2.41 √ | | | | | | |

Table 4.- Results of Spanish speaker 2 comprehension check

Of a total of 50 lexical transfers, 7 were eliminated as the participant was unable to hear the English speaker; of the remaining 43 transfers, 37 were answered as having been understood, and 6 were answered as not having been understood. Of the 37 transfers that were said to have been understood, 31 were, in fact, understood and 6 were not. The 31 which were understood are: 8 *coinages of new word*, 6 *borrowings*, 5 *calques*, 4 *semantic extensions*, 3 *collocational transfers*, 4 *subcategorization transfers*, and 1 *coinage of new expression*. Of the 6 transfers, which were not understood, 4 were *borrowings* and 2 were *coinages of a new word*. The 6 transfers that were said to be understood but were not are: 2 *coinages of new word*, 2 *semantic extensions*, 1 *borrowing*, and 1 *coinage of new expression*.

The 5 lexical transfers that were not understood transfers are:

Habladores (Number 2.2).

⁷ Was used twice.

⁸ Was used 3 times.

⁹ Was used twice.

¹⁰ Was used twice.

Gibraltar (Number 2.9).

The word was pronounced in English.

Well (Number 2.12).

It's pretty tough (Number 2.29).

Baqueta (Number 2.35).

The 6 mentioned lexical transfers that were thought to have been understood are:

Ligal (Number 2.8). The participant understood “*Llegar*”.

Escuela (Number 14). The SP understood “*escuela*” as the English-speaking participant said, but the latter should have used the term *Universidad* because he was talking about his college studies, consequently, the use of this term is inappropriate and therefore, the SP did not truly understand the whole meaning of the sentence being said.

Yo estaba en el colegio (Number 2.20).

This case is identical to the previous one with the exception that the word used is “*colegio*” instead of “*escuela*”.

I'm just losing it (Number 2.28).

The participant understood “*Se me ha olvidado*”.

Pero el punto de una sala de relajar (Number 2.31).

The participant understood simply “*una sala de relajación*”

Perubiana (Number 2.43).

The participant understood “*rubia*”.

What is most interesting of this SP is that she has used the same lexical transfers to explain the meaning of the lexical items used by the English-speaking participant as he himself has used. These cases are: “*escuela*” instead of using “*universidad*” (number 14); the use of the passive “*no fue afectada*” instead of using “*no se vió afectada*” (number 15), the former sounds excessively basic as in Spanish we have the alternative “*pasiva refleja*” used, precisely, to avoid the use of such form; “*dos esquinas lejos*” instead of saying “*a dos manzanas*” (number 16), this expression is understandable but it would never be used in Spanish; “*es como su nombre dice*” instead of saying “*tal y como su nombre indica*” (number 32), the SP has been caught by the English speaker's expression, which is also understandable but not natural in Spanish.

4.3.3.-Spanish participant (SP3)

| False cognate | Borrowing | Coinagenew word | Coinagenew expression | Semantic extension | Calque | Collocational transfer | Subcat. T. |
|---------------|-----------|----------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|--------|------------------------|----------------------|
| | | 3.4 ✓ | | 3.2 ✓ | 3.6 ✓ | 3.3 ✓ ¹¹ | 3.1 ✓ |
| | | 3.11 ✓ | | 3.5 ✓ | | 3.7 ✓ ¹² | 3.15 ✓ ¹³ |
| | | 3.14 ✓ | | 3.8 ✓ | | 3.9 ✓ | |
| | | 3.21x(w) | | 3.16 ✓ | | 3.10 ✓ | |
| | | 3.25 ✓ | | 3.17a ✓ ¹⁴ | | 3.12 ✓ ¹⁵ | |
| | | 3.27 x | | 3.20 ✓ | | 3.13 ✓ | |
| | | 3.29 ✓ | | 3.23 ✓ | | 3.17b ✓ | |
| | | 3.30 ✓ ¹⁶ | | 3.24 ✓ | | 3.18 ✓ | |
| | | 3.34 ✓ | | 3.31 ✓ | | 3.19 ✓ | |
| | | | | 3.32 ✓ ¹⁷ | | 3.22 ✓ | |
| | | | | 3.33 ✓ ¹⁸ | | 3.26 ✓ ¹⁹ | |
| | | | | | | 3.28 ✓ | |
| | | | | | | 3.35 ✓ | |

Table 5.- Results of Spanish speaker 3 comprehension check

Of a total of 50 lexical transfers, 49 were answered as having been understood, 1 was answered as not having been understood. Of the 49 transfers that were said to have been understood, 48 were in fact, understood; and they are: 20 *collocational transfers*, 15 *semantic extensions*, 8 *coinage of new words*, 4 *subcategorization transfers*, and 1 *calque*. The lexical transfer which was answered as not having been understood, was a *coinage of a new word*. This SP has maintained two lexical transfers to explain two transfers made by the USA

¹¹ Was used twice.

¹² Was used twice.

¹³ Was used 3 times.

¹⁴ Was used twice.

¹⁵ Was used twice.

¹⁶ Was used twice.

¹⁷ Was used 3 times.

¹⁸ Was used twice.

¹⁹ Was used 4 times.

participant. These lexical transfers are: *Programa* (number 5), meaning *curso*; and *Usar* (number 6), meaning *ofrecer*.

The lexical transfer which was not understood is:

Es la mismagrado (Number 3.27).

The lexical transfer which was thought to have been understood but was not is:

Después eso voy a mover a Tejas (Number 3.21).

The SP understood that the speaker was going to go to Texas, not move to Texas.

4.3.4.-Spanish participant (SP4)

| False cognate | Borrowing | Coinage new word | | Coinage new expression | Semantic extension | Calque | Collocational transfer | Subcat. T. |
|---------------|----------------------|------------------|--|------------------------|----------------------|--------|------------------------|------------|
| 4.6 x | 4.1 √ | 4.8 √ | | | 4.4 √ | 4.23 √ | 4.21 √ | 4.2 √ |
| 4.31 √ | 4.3 √ | 4.18 √ | | | 4.7 √ | 4.27 √ | 4.26 √ | 4.12 √ |
| | 4.5 x ²⁰ | 4.19 √ | | | 4.14x(w) | 4.35 √ | | |
| | 4.9 √ | 4.43 √ | | | 4.24 √ | 4.41 x | | |
| | 4.10 x | | | | 4.32 √ | | | |
| | 4.11 x | | | | 4.33 √ | | | |
| | 4.13 √ | | | | 4.38 √ ²¹ | | | |
| | 4.15 √ | | | | 4.40 √ | | | |
| | 4.16 x | | | | | | | |
| | 4.17 √ | | | | | | | |
| | 4.20 √ | | | | | | | |
| | 4.22 x | | | | | | | |
| | 4.25 √ | | | | | | | |
| | 4.28 √ ²² | | | | | | | |
| | 4.29 √ | | | | | | | |

²⁰ Was used twice.

²¹ Was used twice.

²² Was used twice.

| False cognate | Borrowing | Coinage new word | | Coinage new expression | Semantic extension | Calque | Collocational transfer | Subcat. T. |
|---------------|-----------|------------------|--|------------------------|--------------------|--------|------------------------|------------|
| | 4.30 x | | | | | | | |
| | 4.34 √ | | | | | | | |
| | 4.36 √ | | | | | | | |
| | 4.37 √ | | | | | | | |
| | 4.39 √ | | | | | | | |
| | 4.42 √ | | | | | | | |
| | 4.44 √ | | | | | | | |
| | 4.45 x | | | | | | | |
| | 4.46 √ | | | | | | | |
| | 4.47 √ | | | | | | | |

Table 6.- Results of Spanish speaker 4 comprehension check

Of a total of 50 lexical transfers, 40 were answered as having been understood and 10 were answered as not having been understood. Of the 40 which were answered as having been understood 39 were, in fact, understood and 1 was not. Of the 39 that were understood, 19 are *borrowings*, 8 are *semantic extensions*, 4 are *coinage of new words*, 3 are *calques*, 2 are *collocational transfers*, 2 are *subcategorization transfers*, and 1 is a *false cognate*. The 10 lexical transfers that were not understood are: 8 *borrowings*, 1 *false cognate*, and 1 *calque*. That which was thought to have been understood but was not is: 1 *semantic extension*.

Among those lexical transfers that were not understood are:

Medio Ambiente, y español es mi minor ¿Minor? (Number 4.5).

Medio Ambiente, y español es mi minor ¿Minor? ¿Menor? (Number 4.6).

Well, hold on (Number 4.10).

Well. Pero, estoy aquí... (Number 4.11).

Hold on (Number 4.16).

Well. Pero no he venido allí (Number 4.22).

Necesito aprender cocinar mucho more (Number 4.30).

Sí, estaba muy divertido el atmosférico (Number 4.41).

Es una habitación common (Number 4.45).

The 1 mentioned lexical transfer that was thought to have been understood but was not are:

*Sí, porque quiero estudiar español y es mejor para estudiar aquí, but, pero, **por** mis estudios de Medio Ambiente es mejor en América del Sur* (Number 4.14).

The participant understood *como estudio Medioambientales...*, when the speaker meant *para mis estudios de Medio Ambiente es mejor en América del Sur*.

4.3.5.-Spanish participant (SP5)

| False cognate | Borrowing | Coinage new word | Coinage new expression | Semantic extension | Calque | Collocational transfer | Subcat. T. |
|---------------|-----------|------------------|------------------------|---------------------|-------------------------|------------------------|------------|
| 5.40 ✓ | 5.1 ✓ | 5.20 ✓ | 5.25 ✓ | 5.2 ✓ | 5.3 ✓ | 5.12 ✓ | |
| | 5.8 ✓ | 5.26 ✓ | | 5.5 ✓ ²³ | 5.4 ✓ | 5.13 ✓ | |
| | 5.10 ✓ | 5.29 ✓ | | 5.7 x (w) | 5.6 ✓ | 5.15 ✓ | |
| | 5.14 ✓ | 5.31 ✓ | | 5.9 ✓ | 5.16 x | 5.17 ✓ | |
| | 5.22 ✓ | | | 5.11 x | 5.19 ✓ | 5.27 ✓ | |
| | 5.23 ✓ | | | 5.18 ✓ | 5.32 ✓ | 5.28 ✓ | |
| | 5.24 ✓ | | | 5.21 ✓ | 5.34 ✓ | 5.33 ✓ | |
| | 5.30 ✓ | | | 5.42 ✓ | 5.36 x(w) ²⁴ | 5.35 o | |
| | 5.41 ✓ | | | | | 5.37 ✓ | |
| | 5.43 ✓ | | | | | 5.38 ✓ | |
| | | | | | | 5.39 ✓ | |

Table 7.- Results of Spanish speaker 5 comprehension check

Of a total of 46 lexical transfers, in fact 44, because two of the questions were cancelled, 42 were answered as having been understood and 2 were answered as not having been understood. Of the 42 which were answered as having been understood 39 were, in fact, understood and 3 were not. Of the 39 that were understood, 10 are *borrowings*, 10 are *collocational transfers*, 6 are *calques*, 7 are *semantic extensions*, 4 are *coinage of new words*,

²³ Was used twice.

²⁴ Was used twice.

1 is a *false cognate*, and 1 is a *coinage of new expression*. The 2 lexical transfers that were not understood are 1 *semantic extension*, and 1 *calque*. The 3 which were thought to have been understood but were not are: 1 *semantic extension*, and 2 *calques*.

Among those lexical transfers that were not understood are:

Entonces no estoy tan cerca como ellos con su familia. (Number 5.11).

Sonríe y hay luz en todo (Number 5.16).

The 2 mentioned lexical transfers that were thought to have been understood but were not are:

Siempre hay el próximo año (Number 5.36).

The participant understood *el año que viene*, when the speaker meant *There is always next year*, in the sense that if a team doesn't win one year it can always win the following year, which in Spanish would be expressed by saying *Siempre nos queda el año que viene*.

Pero todavía mi nivel es bastante bien (Number 5.7).

The participant understood *Mi nivel es bastante bueno*, which left out precisely the transfer word, *todavía*. The speaker meant to say *But still my level is quite good*, which would be expressed in Spanish by saying *Pero mi nivel, aún así, es bastante bueno*.

4.3.6.-Spanish participant (SP6)

| False cognate | Borrowing | Coinage new word | Coinage new expression | Semantic extension | Calque | Collocational transfer | Subcat. T. |
|---------------|-----------|------------------|------------------------|---------------------|--------|------------------------|------------|
| 6.15 ✓ | 6.5 x | 6.43 ✓ | 6.79 ✓ | 6.1 x | 6.2 x | 6.3 ✓ | 6.90 ✓ |
| 6.26 ✓ | 6.6 ✓ | 6.77 ✓ | | 6.7 ✓ ²⁵ | 6.4 ✓ | 6.8 ✓ | |
| 6.69 ✓ | 6.9 ✓ | | | 6.10 ✓ | 6.12 ✓ | 6.21 ✓ | |
| | 6.13 x | | | 6.11 ✓ | 6.19 ✓ | 6.28 ✓ | |
| | 6.14 ✓ | | | 6.23 x | 6.24 x | 6.33 ✓ | |
| | 6.16 x | | | 6.29 ✓ | 6.40 ✓ | 6.34 ✓ | |
| | 6.17 x | | | 6.35 ✓ | 6.41 ✓ | 6.37 x | |
| | 6.18 x | | | 6.56 x | 6.44 ✓ | 6.42 ✓ | |

²⁵ Was used twice.

| False cognate | Borrowing | Coinage new word | Coinage new expression | Semantic extension | Calque | Collocational transfer | Subcat. T. |
|------------------|-----------|---------------------|------------------------------|-----------------------|--------|---------------------------|------------|
| | 6.20 x | | | 6.66 ✓ | 6.49 ✓ | 6.45 ✓ | |
| | 6.22 x | | | 6.72 ✓ | 6.57 x | 6.54 ✓ | |
| | 6.25 x | | | 6.74 ✓ | 6.89 ✓ | 6.55 ✓ | |
| | 6.27 ✓ | | | 6.75b ✓ | | 6.59 x | |
| | 6.30 x | | | 6.76 ✓ | | 6.62 ✓ | |
| | 6.31 ✓ | | | 6.81 x | | 6.63 ✓ | |
| | 6.32 ✓ | | | | | 6.64 ✓ | |
| | 6.36 x(w) | | | | | 6.65 ✓ | |
| | 6.38 x(w) | | | | | 6.73 ✓ | |
| | 6.39 x | | | | | 6.75a ✓ | |
| | 6.46 x | | | | | 6.78 ✓ | |
| | 6.47 ✓ | | | | | 6.83 ✓ | |
| | 6.48 ✓ | | | | | 6.84 ✓ | |
| | 6.50 x | | | | | 6.85 ✓ | |
| | 6.51 ✓ | | | | | 6.87 ✓ | |
| | 6.52 ✓ | | | | | 6.88 ✓ | |
| | 6.53 ✓ | | | | | | |
| | 6.58 x | | | | | | |
| | 6.60 x(w) | | | | | | |
| | 6.61 ✓ | | | | | | |
| | 6.67 ✓ | | | | | | |
| | 6.68 x(w) | | | | | | |
| | 6.70 ✓ | | | | | | |
| | 6.71 ✓ | | | | | | |
| | 6.80 x | | | | | | |
| | 6.82 ✓ | | | | | | |
| | 6.86 x(w) | | | | | | |

Table 8.- Results of Spanish speaker 6 comprehension check

Of a total of 93 lexical transfers, 91 in fact as 2 were cancelled, 68 were answered as having been understood and 23 were answered as not having been understood. Of the 68 lexical transfers that were answered as having been understood 63 were, in fact, understood, and 5 were not. These 63 lexical transfers are 23 are *collocational transfers*, 16 are *borrowings*, 10 are *semantic extensions*, 8 are *calques*, 2 are *coinage of new words*, 3 are *false cognates*, and 1 is a *Coinage of New expression*. The 23 lexical transfers that were not understood were 14 *Borrowings*, 4 *Semantic extensions*, 3 *Calques*, and 2 *Collocational transfers*. The 5 lexical transfers that were thought to have been understood were 5 *Borrowings*.

Among the 23 lexical transfers that were not understood are:

...*al nivel* 8 (Number 6.1).

Sí, **personal** 14 (Number 6.2).

Marine Corps (Number 6.5).

Infantry (Number 6.13).

Inauguration? (Number 6.16).

Secret services (Number 6.17).

F.B.I. (Number 6.18).

Parade (Number 6.20).

He threw his (zapato) (Number 6.22).

...*pero también era muy sobre los negocios* (Number 6.23).

Muy sobre los negocios (Number 6.24).

You know (Number 6.25).

Irish (Number 6.30).

*Prefería los **negocios extranjeros*** (Number 6.37).

Farm (Number 6.39).

Greenbay Packers (Number 6.46).

Forty-niners (Number 6.50).

...*son todos rotos* (Number 6.56)

...*son todos **rotos*** (Number 6.57).

Walkers (Number 6.58).

Su brazo está roto (Number 6.59).

Well (Number 6.80).

You know (Number 6.86).

The 5 mentioned lexical transfers that were thought to have been understood but were not are:

Or (Number 6.36) was understood as “*continuar*”.

Degree (Number 6.38) was understood as “*postgrado*”.

U.P.S. (Number 6.60) was understood as “*Europeas*”.

Laptops (Number 6.68) was understood as “*headtops*”.

You know (Number 6.86) was understood as “*a qué he venido*”

4.3.7.-Spanish participant (SP7)

| False cognate | Borrowing | Coinage new word | Coinage new expression | Semantic extension | Calque | Collocational transfer | Subcat. T. |
|---------------|----------------------|------------------|------------------------|--------------------|----------------------|------------------------|-----------------------|
| 7.13 √ | 7.1 x | 7.23 √ | | 7.2 √ | 7.12 √ | 7.7 √ ²⁶ | 7.32b √ ²⁷ |
| | 7.3 √ | 7.39 √ | | 7.9 x(w) | 7.16 √ | 7.8 √ | 7.48 √ |
| | 7.4 √ | 7.42 x(w) | | 7.21 √ | 7.18 √ | 7.10 √ | |
| | 7.5 √ ²⁸ | 7.44 √ | | 7.25 √ | 7.22 √ ²⁹ | 7.11 √ | |
| | 7.6 √ ³⁰ | 7.50 √ | | 7.26 √ | 7.28 √ | 7.14 √ | |
| | 7.15 √ | | | 7.27 √ | 7.47 √ | 7.31 √ | |
| | 7.17 √ ³¹ | | | 7.29 √ | | 7.32a o | |
| | 7.19 √ | | | 7.30 √ | | 7.33 √ | |
| | 7.20 √ | | | 7.35 √ | | 7.36 √ | |
| | 7.24 √ | | | 7.49 √ | | 7.37 √ | |
| | 7.34 √ | | | | | 7.51 √ | |
| | 7.38 √ | | | | | 7.52 √ | |
| | 7.40 √ | | | | | | |
| | 7.41 √ ³² | | | | | | |

²⁶ Was used twice.

²⁷ Was used twice.

²⁸ Was used twice.

²⁹ Was used twice.

³⁰ Was used 5 times.

³¹ Was used 4 times.

³² Was used 5 times.

| False cognate | Borrowing | Coinage new word | Coinage new expression | Semantic extension | Calque | Collocational transfer | Subcat. T. |
|---------------|------------------|------------------|------------------------|--------------------|--------|------------------------|------------|
| | 7.43 $\sqrt{33}$ | | | | | | |
| | 7.45 $\sqrt{34}$ | | | | | | |
| | 7.46 $\sqrt{}$ | | | | | | |

Table 9.- Results of Spanish speaker 7 comprehension check

Of a total of 71 lexical transfers, 1 was cancelled, 69 were answered as having been understood, and 1 was answered as not having been understood. Of the 69 which were said to have been understood, 67 were truly understood and 2 were not. Those which were understood are: 31 *Borrowings*, 12 *Collocational transfers*, 9 *Semantic extensions*, 7 *Calques*, 4 *Coinage of New words*, 3 *Subcategorization transfer*, and 1 *False Cognate*. The lexical transfer that was said not to have been understood is 1 *Borrowing*. The 2 which were believed to have been understood are: 1 *Semantic extension* and 1 *Coinage of New word*.

The lexical transfer that was not understood is:

Well (Number 7.1).

The 2 mentioned lexical transfers that were thought to have been understood but were not are:

No creo que sobre la diferencia (Number 7.9).

The SP understood *no creo que*, when the USA speaker meant *no pensé en la diferencia*.

Cuadros (Number 7.42).

The SP understood *con cuadros*, when the USA speaker meant *el cubilete* where employees sit in an office.

³³ Was used 3 times.

³⁴ Was used twice.

4.3.8.-Spanish participant (SP8)

| False cognate | Borrowing | Coinage new word | Coinage new expression | Semantic extension | Calque | Collocation al transfer | Subcat. T. |
|---------------|---------------------------|---------------------------|------------------------|---------------------------|---------------------------|---------------------------|--------------------------|
| | 8.1 $\sqrt{35}$ | 8.2 $\sqrt{}$ | | 8.10 $\sqrt{36}$ | 8.4 $\sqrt{}$ | 8.9 $\sqrt{}$ | 8.3 $\sqrt{}$ |
| | 8.6 x | 8.7 $\sqrt{}$ | | 8.12 $\sqrt{}$ | 8.5 $\sqrt{}$ | 8.11 $\sqrt{37}$ | |
| | 8.20 x | 8.8 $\sqrt{}$ | | 8.15 $\sqrt{}$ | 8.17 $\sqrt{}$ | 8.13 $\sqrt{}$ | |
| | 8.21 $\sqrt{}$ | 8.19 $\sqrt{}$ | | 8.18 x(w) | | 8.14 $\sqrt{}$ | |
| | 8.22 $\sqrt{}$ | | | 8.23 $\sqrt{}$ | | 8.16 $\sqrt{}$ | |
| | 8.27 x | | | 8.24 $\sqrt{38}$ | | 8.29 $\sqrt{}$ | |
| | 8.30 x(w) | | | 8.25 $\sqrt{39}$ | | 8.31 $\sqrt{}$ | |
| | 8.32 $\sqrt{}$ | | | 8.26 $\sqrt{}$ | | | |
| | | | | 8.28 $\sqrt{40}$ | | | |

Table 10.- Results of Spanish speaker 8 comprehension check

Of a total of 41 lexical transfers, 38 were answered as having been understood, and 3 were answered as not having been understood. Of the 38 which were answered as having been understood only 36 were truly understood and 2 were not. The lexical transfers that were understood are: 13 *Semantic extensions*, 8 *Collocational transfers*, 7 *Borrowings*, 4 *Coinage of New words*, 3 *Calques*, and 1 *Subcategorization transfer*. The 3 that were not understood are: 3 *Borrowings*. The 2 that were believed to have been understood but were not are: 1 *Semantic extension*, and 1 *Borrowing*.

Among the 3 lexical transfers that were not understood are:

*Pero en Vermont es 7 grados pero en **Fahrenheit**.* (Number 8.6).

*En **Munich**, pero es mi familia* (Number 8.20).

What did we do? (Number 8.27).

The 2 mentioned lexical transfers that were thought to have been understood but were not are:

³⁵ Was used 4 times.

³⁶ Was used twice.

³⁷ Was used twice.

³⁸ Was used 3 times.

³⁹ Was used twice.

⁴⁰ Was used twice.

Pero sé algunas personas les gusta Franco (Number 8.18).

This phrase was understood as: *Yo sé que a algunas personas les gusta Franco*. However, the speaker meant: *Pero, conozco a algunas personas que les gusta Franco*.

Me gusta el equipo de Yukon. (Number 8.30).

The SP understood that Yukon was the name of a team, instead of the name of a territory in Alaska.

4.3.9.-Spanish participant (SP9)

| False cognate | Borrowing | Coinage new word | Coinage new expression | Semantic extension | Calque | Collocational transfer | Subcat. T. |
|------------------------|-----------|----------------------|--------------------------|--------------------|----------------------|------------------------|------------|
| 9.12x(w) ⁴¹ | 9.4 √ | 9.8 x | 9.7 x (w) | 9.1 √ | 9.5 √ | 9.3 √ | |
| 9.18 √ | 9.24 √ | 9.17 x(w) | 9.14 √ ⁴² | 9.2 √ | 9.9 √ ⁴³ | 9.6 √ | |
| 9.19 x ⁴⁴ | 9.27 √ | 9.28 x | 9.35 x (w) ⁴⁵ | 9.13 √ | 9.10 x | 9.16 √ | |
| 9.29 √ | | 9.37 √ ⁴⁶ | | 9.21 √ | 9.11 x (w) | 9.20 x (w) | |
| | | 9.39 x | | 9.22 √ | 9.15 √ ⁴⁷ | 9.30 √ | |
| | | 9.41 √ | | 9.23 √ | 9.25 √ | 9.36 √ | |
| | | | | 9.31 √ | 9.26 √ ⁴⁸ | 9.38 √ | |
| | | | | 9.32 √ | 9.33 √ | 9.45 √ | |
| | | | | 9.40 √ | 9.34 √ | | |
| | | | | 9.43 √ | 9.42 x (w) | | |
| | | | | 9.44 √ | 9.46 x (w) | | |

Table 11.- Results of Spanish speaker 9 comprehension check

Of a total of 61 lexical transfers, 54 were answered as having been understood, and 7 were answered as not having been understood. Of the 54 which were answered as having been

⁴¹ Was used 3 times.

⁴² Was used twice.

⁴³ Was used 3 times.

⁴⁴ Was used 3 times.

⁴⁵ Was used 3 times.

⁴⁶ Was used twice.

⁴⁷ Was used twice.

⁴⁸ Was used 4 times.

understood only 42 were truly understood and 12 were not. The lexical transfers that were understood are: 13 *Calques*, 11 *Semantic extensions*, 7 *Collocational transfers*, 3 *Borrowings*, 3 *Coinage of New expression*, 3 *Coinage of New words*, and 2 *False Cognates*. The 7 that were not understood are: 3 *Coinage of new words*, 3 *False Cognate*, and 1 *Calque*. The 12 that were believed to be understood but were not are: 4 *Coinage of New expressions*, 3 *Calques*, 3 *False Cognate*, 1 *Coinage of New word*, and 1 *Collocational transfer*.

Among the 5 lexical transfers that were not understood are:

La empieza de la Guerra Mundial 2. (Number 9.8).

*No sé qué **dice sobre yo***. (Number 9.10).

Aplicar a la Universidad. (Number 9.19).

Agua melón. (Number 9.28).

Papel de arena (Number 9.39).

The 7 mentioned lexical transfers that were thought to have been understood but were not are:

A parte de una estudia más grande (Number 9.7).

This phrase was understood as: *En la Universidad en EEUU estudió la historia de España y le pareció interesante*. However, the speaker meant: *como parte de un estudio más amplio*. *Yo sé*. (Number 9.11).

The phrase was understood as: *O sea*. Instead the actual meaning was *Lo sé*.

Conocía a Franco. (Number 9.13).

The SP understood: *Antes de estudiar en la Universidad ya hablaba con sus amigos españoles “y conocía a Franco”*, he quoted the words but did not understand that the speaker really meant that he *sabía algo sobre Franco/tenía información sobre Franco (had information about Franco)*.

Paralegal. (Number 9.17).

The word was understood as: *Becario*, when the speaker meant *Pasante*.

*Este año quiero **tomar ventaja** de la oportunidad*. (Number 9.20).

The SP understood: *Quiere regresar a España cuando tenga ocasión*. The speaker meant: *Aprovechar la oportunidad para...*

Más que todo él ha ganado... (Number 9.35).

The phrase was understood as: *Más que su Carrera es la...* When the speaker meant: *Sobre todo, él ha ganado...*

Se puede ver la Isla Larga. (Number 9.46).

The SP understood: *Se puede ver el relieve de la isla*, when the speaker was giving the name of the island in English, *Long Island*.

It is interesting to note that the SP explained the meaning of two of the words, used in two different occasions by the English speaker, by using the same lexical transfer as the English speaker had used. Therefore, we conclude that in some occasions the native speaker accepts the lexical item, which is in fact a lexical transfer, to such an extent that he himself uses it. The two cases are: *discusiones* instead of *conversaciones*, and *asistente* instead of *ayudante*.

4.3.10.-Spanish participant (SP10)

| False cognate | Borrowing | Coinage new word | Coinage new expression | Semantic extension | Calque | Collocation al transfer | Subcat. T. |
|---------------|-----------------------|------------------|------------------------|-----------------------|---------|-------------------------|------------|
| | 10.7 x | 10.1 √ | 10.26 √ | 10.4 √ | 10.5 √ | 10.11 √ | 10.3 √ |
| | 10.13 √ | 10.2 √ | | 10.6 √ | 10.9 √ | 10.18 √ | 10.15 √ |
| | 10.24 x ⁴⁹ | | | 10.8 √ | 10.12 √ | 10.23 √ | 10.17 √ |
| | 10.25 √ ⁵⁰ | | | 10.10 √ | 10.14 √ | 10.28 √ | |
| | 10.30 √ | | | 10.22 √ | 10.16 √ | | |
| | | | | 10.27 √ ⁵¹ | 10.19 √ | | |
| | | | | 10.29 √ | 10.20 √ | | |
| | | | | | 10.21 √ | | |

Table 12.- Results of Spanish speaker 10 comprehension check

Of a total of 33 lexical transfers, 30 were answered as having been understood, and 3 were answered as not having been understood. All of those which were answered as having been understood were truly understood. The lexical transfers that were understood are: 8 *Calques*,

⁴⁹ Was used twice.

⁵⁰ Was used twice.

⁵¹ Was used twice.

8 *Semantic extensions*, 4 *Collocational transfers*, 4 *Borrowings*, 3 *Subcategorization transfers*, 2 *Coinage of New words*, and 1 *Coinage of New expression*. The 3 that were not understood are all *Borrowings*.

The 2 lexical transfers that were not understood are:

Index. (Number 10.7).

Spreadsheets. (Number 10.24).

4.3.11.-Spanish participant (SP11)

| False cognate | Borrowing | Coinage new word | Coinage new expression | Semantic extension | Calque | Collocational transfer | Subcat. T. |
|---------------|-----------|------------------|------------------------|--------------------------|---------------|--------------------------|------------|
| | 11.4 ✓ | | 11.5 ✓ | 11.2 ✓ | 11.7 x (w) | 11.1 ✓ | |
| | | | | 11.6 ✓ | 11.8 ✓ | 11.3 ✓ | |
| | | | | 11.14 ✓ ⁵² | 11.9 x (w) | 11.10 ✓ | |
| | | | | | 11.12 ✓ | 11.11 ✓ | |
| | | | | | 11.13 ✓ | 11.16 ✓ ⁵³ | |
| | | | | | 11.15 ✓ | 11.17 ✓ | |
| | | | | | 11.18 ✓ | | |

Table 13.- Results of Spanish speaker 11 comprehension check

Of a total of 20 lexical transfers all were answered as having been understood. Of the 20 that had supposedly been understood, 18 were in fact comprehended and 2 were not. Among those which were understood, 7 are *Collocational transfers*, 5 are *Calques*, 4 are *Semantic extensions*, 1 *Coinage of New expression*, and 1 *Borrowing*. The 2 lexical transfers which were thought to have been understood but were not are 2 *Calques*.

The two which were supposedly understood and were not understood are:

*Porque España es cerca del resto de Europa es más fácil **que** viajar*. (Number 11.7).

⁵² Was used twice.

⁵³ Was used twice.

The SP understood *España tiene buenos sistemas de transporte*, while the speaker meant, *porque España está más cerca del resto de Europa es más fácil viajar (a otros países europeos)*. The transfer is a *Semantic extension*.

La gente es muy simpática que pensaba. (Number 11.9)

The SP understood, *La gente es muy amable*; while the speaker meant, *La gente es más simpático de lo que pensaba*. This transfer is a *calque*.

4.3.12.-Spanish participant (SP12)

| False cognate | Borrowing | Coinage new word | Coinage new expression | Semantic extension | Calque | Collocational transfer | Subcat. T. |
|---------------|-----------|------------------|------------------------|-----------------------|---------|------------------------|------------|
| | 12.2 x | 12.8 x | | 12.3 √ | 12.12 √ | 12.1 √ | |
| | 12.5 √ | 12.23 x(w) | | 12.10 √ ⁵⁴ | 12.15 √ | 12.4 √ | |
| | 12.6 x | | | 12.14 x | 12.18 x | 12.7 √ ⁵⁵ | |
| | 12.17 x | | | 12.16 x(w) | 12.20 √ | 12.9 √ | |
| | | | | 12.19 √ | | 12.11 √ | |
| | | | | 12.21 √ | | 12.13 √ | |
| | | | | | | 12.22 √ | |

Table 14.- Results of Spanish speaker 12 comprehension check

Of a total of 25 lexical transfers, 19 were answered as having been understood and 6 were answered as not having been understood. Of the 19 which were answered as having been understood 17 were, in fact, understood and 2 were not. The 17 that were understood are: 8 *Collocational transfers*, 5 *Semantic extensions*, 3 *Calques*, and 1 *Borrowing*. Those which were not understood are: 3 *Borrowings*, 1 *Coinage of New word*, 1 *Semantic extension*, and 1 *Calque*. The 2 which were thought to have been understood but were not are: 1 *Coinage of New word* and 1 *Semantic extension*.

Among those lexical transfers that were not understood are:

PhD. (Number 12.1).

⁵⁴ Was used twice.

⁵⁵ Was used twice.

Auction House (Number 12.6).

...*Y consultado de arte* (Number 12.8).

Depende en su objeto (Number 12.14).

Passive aggressive (Number 12.17).

Passive **agresivo** (Number 12.18).

The 2 lexical transfers that were thought to have been understood but were not are:

No bastante (Number 12.16).

The SP understood: *No habitualmente*, when the speaker meant: *No lo suficiente*.

Apartunidades (Number 12.23).

The SP understood: *Demostrar*, when the USA speaker meant: *oportunidades*.

4.3.13.-Spanish participant (SP13)

| False cognate | Borrowing | Coinage new word | Coinage new expression | Semantic extension | Calque | Collocation al transfer | Subcat. T. |
|--------------------|-----------|------------------|------------------------|-----------------------|---------|-------------------------|------------|
| 13.3 ⁵⁶ | 13.19 ✓ | 13.4 x | 13.23 x | 13.2 ✓ | 13.1 ✓ | 13.8 ✓ | 13.21 ✓ |
| 13.32 ✓ | 13.22 x | 13.18 ✓ | | 13.6 ✓ | 13.5 ✓ | 13.9 ✓ ⁵⁷ | |
| | 13.36 ✓ | | | 13.7 ✓ | 13.14 ✓ | 13.10 ✓ | |
| | | | | 13.11 ✓ | 13.20 ✓ | 13.16 ✓ | |
| | | | | 13.12 ✓ | 13.28 ✓ | 13.17 ✓ | |
| | | | | 13.13 ✓ | 13.31 x | 13.24 ✓ | |
| | | | | 13.15 ✓ | | 13.27 ✓ | |
| | | | | 13.25 ✓ | | 13.34 ✓ | |
| | | | | 13.26 ✓ | | 13.35 ✓ | |
| | | | | 13.29 ✓ | | 13.37 ✓ | |
| | | | | 13.30 x | | | |
| | | | | 13.33 ✓ ⁵⁸ | | | |

Table 15.- Results of Spanish speaker 13 comprehension check

⁵⁶ Was used twice.

⁵⁷ Was used twice.

⁵⁸ Was used twice.

Of a total of 40 lexical transfers, 35 were answered as having been understood and 5 were answered as not having been understood. All of the 35 which were answered as having been understood were, in fact, understood. These lexical transfers are: 13 *Semantic extensions*, 11 *Collocational transfers*, 5 *Calques*, 2 *Borrowings*, 1 *Coinage of New word*, 3 *False Cognates*, and 1 *Subcategorization transfer*. Those which were answered as not having been understood are: 1 *Borrowings*, 1 *Coinage of New word*, 1 *Coinage of New expression*, 1 *Semantic extension* and 1 *Calque*.

Among those lexical transfers that were not understood are:

You know (Number 13.22).

Vota de ausencia (Number 13.23).

Fue muy cerca para que yo he oído (Number 13.30).

Fue muy cerca para que yo he oído (Number 13.31).

Drama (Number 13.32).

Hacer daño a su cuerpo (Number 13.34).

4.3.14.-Spanish participant (SP14)

| False cognate | Borrowing | Coinage new word | Coinage new expression | Semantic extension | Calque | Collocational transfer | Subcat. T. |
|---------------|-----------|------------------|------------------------|--------------------|--------|------------------------|------------|
| | 14.2 √ | | | 14.1 √ | 14.8 √ | | 14.7 √ |
| | 14.3 x | | | 14.6 x | | | |
| | 14.4 √ | | | | | | |
| | 14.5 x | | | | | | |

Table 16.- Results of Spanish speaker 14 comprehension check

Of a total of 8 lexical transfers, 5 were answered as having been understood and 3 were answered as not having been understood. All of the 8 which were answered as having been understood were, in fact, understood. These lexical transfers are: 2 *Borrowings*, 1 *Semantic extension*, 1 *Calque*, and 1 *Subcategorization transfer*. Those which were answered as not having been understood are: 2 *Borrowings*, and 1 *Calque*.

Among those lexical transfers that were not understood are:

Or (Number 14.3).

Elective (Number 14.5).

Fui a mi colegio (Number 14.6).

4.3.15.-Spanish participant (SP15)

| False cognate | Borrowing | Coinage new word | Coinage new expression | Semantic extension | Calque | Collocational transfer | Subcat. T. |
|---------------|-----------|------------------|------------------------|--------------------|----------------------|------------------------|------------|
| | | 15.7 x | | 15.4 ✓ | 15.2 ✓ ⁵⁹ | 15.1 ✓ | |
| | | 15.16 ✓ | | 15.6 ✓ | 15.9 ✓ | 15.3 ✓ | |
| | | | | | 15.10 ✓ | 15.5 ✓ | |
| | | | | | 15.11 ✓ | 15.8 ✓ | |
| | | | | | 15.13 ✓ | 15.12 ✓ | |
| | | | | | 15.14 ✓ | | |
| | | | | | 15.15 ✓ | | |

Table 17.- Results of Spanish speaker 15 comprehension check

Of a total of 17 lexical transfers, 16 were answered as having been understood and 1 was answered as not having been understood. All of the 16 which were answered as having been understood were, in fact, understood. These lexical transfers are: 8 *Calques*, 5 *Collocational transfers*, 2 *Semantic extensions*, 1 *Coinage of New word*. That which was answered as not having been understood is a *Coinage of a New word*.

The lexical transfer that was not understood is:

Erea (Number 15.7).

⁵⁹ Was used twice.

4.3.16.-Spanish participant (SP16)

| False cognate | Borrowing | Coinage new word | Coinage new expression | Semantic extension | Calque | Collocational transfer | Subcat. T. |
|-----------------------|-----------|------------------|------------------------|--------------------|---------|------------------------|------------|
| 16.6 ✓ | 16.5 ✓ | 16.4 ✓ | | 16.1 ✓ | 16.7 ✓ | 16.10 ✓ | 16.16 x(w) |
| 16.17 x(w) | 16.9 ✓ | 16.18 ✓ | | 16.2 ✓ | 16.8 ✓ | 16.12 ✓ ⁶⁰ | |
| 16.19 x ⁶¹ | 16.11 x | | | 16.3 ✓ | 16.22 ✓ | 16.14 ✓ | |
| | 16.15 x | | | 16.13 ✓ | | 16.20 ✓ | |
| | | | | 16.24 ✓ | | 16.21 ✓ | |
| | | | | | | 16.23 ✓ | |

Table 18.- Results of Spanish speaker 16 comprehension check

Of a total of 26 lexical transfers, 22 were answered as having been understood and 4 were answered as not having been understood. Of the 22 which were answered as having been understood 20 were, in fact, understood. These lexical transfers are: 7 *Collocational transfers*, 5 *Semantic extensions*, 3 *Calques*, 2 *Borrowings*, 2 *Coinage of New words*, and 1 *False Cognate*. Those which were answered as not having been understood are: 2 *Borrowings*, 2 *False Cognate*. The remaining 2 lexical transfers which were answered as having been understood but were not are: 1 *False Cognate* and 1 *Subcategorization transfer*.

Among those lexical transfers that were not understood are:

Well. (Number 16.11).

I'm. (Number 16.15).

Demostración. (Number 16.19).

The 2 lexical transfers that were thought to have been understood but were not are:

No sé, es difícil para discutir (Number 16.16).

The SP understood that it was *not difficult to argue, no es complicado discutir*, while the speaker meant that *it was difficult to talk*. I assume that the SP mistook the negative particle of the first sentence and added it with the second sentence.

⁶⁰ Was used twice.

⁶¹ Was used twice.

*No sé, es difícil para **discutir*** (Number 16.17).

The SP understood *discutir* as *argue*, which is what was said by the USA speaker, yet the meaning was not transmitted because the speaker did not intend to express the idea of confrontation nor argument, he meant to say it was difficult to express one's ideas, to talk. Therefore, the word *discutir* interfered with the message.

4.3.17.-Spanish participant (SP17)

| False cognate | Borrowing | Coinage new word | Coinage new expression | Semantic extension | Calque | Collocation al transfer | Subcat. T. |
|---------------|-----------|------------------|------------------------|----------------------|--------|-------------------------|------------|
| 17.1 √ | 17.2 x | 17.16 √ | | 17.4 √ ⁶² | 17.3 √ | 17.11 √ | |
| | 17.10 √ | 17.17 √ | | 17.5 √ | 17.6 √ | 17.12 √ | |
| | | | | 17.7 √ | 17.8 √ | 17.13 √ | |
| | | | | 17.18 √ | 17.9 x | 17.14 √ | |
| | | | | 17.19 √ | | 17.15 √ | |

Table 19.- Results of Spanish speaker 17 comprehension check

Of a total of 20 lexical transfers, 18 were answered as having been understood and 2 were answered as not having been understood. All those which were answered as having been understood were, in fact, understood. These lexical transfers are: 5 *Collocational transfers*, 6 *Semantic extensions*, 3 *Calques*, 2 *Coinage of New words*, 1 *Borrowings*, and 1 *False Cognate*. Those which were answered as not having been understood are: 1 *Borrowings*, and 1 *Calque*.

Among those lexical transfers that were not understood are:

Child. (Number 17.2).

*Nuestros profesores, porque son más en EEUU son más sencillos **porque** la cultura*. (Number 17.9).

⁶² Was used twice.

4.3.18.-Spanish participant (SP18)

| False cognate | Borrowing | Coinage new word | Coinage new expression | Semantic extension | Calque | Collocation al transfer | Subcat. T. |
|---------------|-----------|----------------------|------------------------|--------------------|--------|-------------------------|------------|
| | 18.10 x | 18.8 √ | | 18.1 √ | 18.4 √ | | |
| | | 18.9 x ⁶³ | | 18.2 x | 18.7 √ | | |
| | | 18.13 x(w) | | 18.3 x | | | |
| | | 18.14 x | | 18.5 √ | | | |
| | | | | 18.6 √ | | | |
| | | | | 18.11 √ | | | |
| | | | | 18.12 x(w) | | | |

Table 20.- Results of Spanish speaker 18 comprehension check

Of a total of 15 lexical transfers, 9 were answered as having been understood and 6 were answered as not having been understood. Of the 9 which were answered as having been understood 7 were, in fact, understood. These lexical transfers are: 4 *Semantic extensions*, 2 *Calques*, and 1 *Coinage of New word*. Those which were answered as not having been understood are: 1 *Borrowing*, 3 *Coinages of New word*, and 2 *Semantic extensions*. The remaining 2 lexical transfers which were answered as having been understood but were not are: 1 *Semantic extension*, and 1 *Coinage of a New word*.

Among those lexical transfers that were not understood are:

La misma programa. (Number 18.2).

Sí, tenemos conexiones diferentes. (Number 18.9).

Embigo. Embiguo. (Number 18.9)

Vague. (Number 18.10).

Solamente vi el empiezo de la gente, pero no el turno. (Number 18.14).

The 2 lexical transfers that were thought to have been understood but were not are:

No le gustan tampoco de las opciones. (Number 18.12)

⁶³ Was used twice.

The SP understood the general meaning of the expression, however, as she avoided using any term to explain the meaning of the word in question, I have considered she has not specifically understood the term *tampoco*. The speaker meant *ninguna* and the SP has not grasped that meaning.

*Solamente vi el empiezo de la gente, pero no el **turno**.* (Number 18.13).

Once again, the SP has not grasped the exact meaning of the term, *turno*, although she has understood the sense of it. She has indicated that the speaker did not see *el resto*, not specifically *the result*, which is what the speaker meant.

4.3.19.-Spanish participant (SP19)

| False cognate | Borrowing | Coinage new word | Coinage new expression | Semantic extension | Calque | Collocational transfer | Subcat. T. |
|----------------------|-----------|------------------|------------------------|-----------------------|--------|------------------------|------------|
| 19.2 x ⁶⁴ | 19.3 x | 19.9 x | | 19.1 √ | 19.6 x | 19.5 √ | |
| | 19.7 √ | 19.10 x | | 19.4 √ | | | |
| | 19.8 x | 19.13 √ | | 19.11 √ ⁶⁵ | | | |
| | | | | 19.12 √ | | | |

Table 21.- Results of Spanish speaker 19 comprehension check

Of a total of 16 lexical transfers, 8 were answered as having been understood and 8 were answered as not having been understood. All of the 8 which were answered as having been understood were, in fact, understood. These lexical transfers are: 5 Semantic extensions, 1 Coinage of New word, 1 Borrowing, and 1 Collocational transfer. Those which were answered as not having been understood are: 2 Borrowings, 2 Coinages of New words, 3 False Cognate, and 1 Calque.

Among those lexical transfers that were not understood are:

*El tercer **grado** de la universidad.* (Number 19.2).

Well. (Number 19.3).

Sí, yo sé. (Number 19.6)

⁶⁴ Was used 3 times.

⁶⁵ Was used twice.

I mean. (Number 19.8).

Hay más frases unoficiales en inglés. (Number 19.9).

Yusualmente. (Number 19.10).

4.3.20.-Spanish participant (SP20)

| False cognate | Borrowing | Coinage new word | Coinage new expression | Semantic extension | Calque | Collocation al transfer | Subcat. T. |
|-----------------------|------------|------------------|------------------------|-----------------------|---------|------------------------------|------------|
| 20.1 √ | 20.6 x | 20.2 √ | 20.4 x | 20.5 √ | 20.3 √ | 20.8 √ ⁶⁶ | |
| 20.12 √ ⁶⁷ | 20.16 x(w) | 20.18 √ | | 20.7 √ ⁶⁸ | 20.15 √ | 20.9 √ | |
| 20.14 √ ⁶⁹ | | 20.22 √ | | 20.11 √ ⁷⁰ | 20.17 √ | 20.10 √ | |
| | | | | 20.13 √ | | 20.19 √ | |
| | | | | | | 20.20 √ | |
| | | | | | | 20.21 √ ⁷¹ | |

Table 22.- Results of Spanish speaker 20 comprehension check

Of a total of 28 lexical transfers, 26 were answered as having been understood and 2 were answered as not having been understood. Of the 26 which were answered as having been understood 25 were, in fact, understood. These lexical transfers are: 8 Collocational transfers, 6 Semantic extensions, 3 Calques, and 3 Coinage of New words, and 5 False Cognates. Those which were answered as not having been understood are: 1 Borrowing, 1 Coinage of a New expression. The remaining lexical transfer which was answered as having been understood but was not is: 1 Borrowing.

Among those lexical transfers that were not understood are:

Más luego. (Number 20.4).

Nursery. (Number 20.6).

The lexical transfer that was thought to have been understood but was not is:

...quien le impress. (Number 20.16).

⁶⁶ Was used twice.

⁶⁷ Was used twice.

⁶⁸ Was used twice.

⁶⁹ Was used twice.

⁷⁰ Was used twice.

⁷¹ Was used twice.

| NEGATIVE LEXICAL TRANSFERS UNDERSTOOD BY SPs | | | | | | | |
|--|-----------|--------------------|--------------------------|-----------|--------|----------|------------|
| False Cog. | Borrowing | CoinageNew word | CoinageNew expression | Sem. Ex. | Calque | Col. T. | Subcat. T. |
| | | | | | | | |
| 4.31 | 1.5 | 1.15 | 1.1 | 1.21 | 1.4 | 1. 2 | 1. 9 |
| 5.40 | 1.6 | 1.17 | 2.32 | 1.26 | 1.35a | 1. 3 | 2.4 |
| 6.15 | 1.7 | 1.31 | 5.25 | 1.29 | 2.15 | 1.10 | 2.30 (3) |
| 6.26 | 1.11 | 2.7 | 6.79 | 1.30 | 2.16 | 1.12 | 3.1 |
| 6.69 | 1.20 | 2.9 | 9.14 (2) | 1.38 | 2.17 | 1.23 | 3.15 (3) |
| 7.13 | 1.22 | 2.10 | 10.26 | 2.1 | 2.19 | 1.24 | 4.2 |
| 9.18 | 1.25 | 2.18 | 11.5 | 2.21 | 2.22 | 1.35b | 4.12 |
| 9.29 | 1.27 | 2.26 | | 2.33 (2) | 3.6 | 1.39 | 6.90 |
| 13.3 (2) | 1.28 | 2.34 | | 2.38 | 4.23 | 2.5 | 7.32b (2) |
| 13.32 | 1.32 | 2.42 (2) | | 3.2 | 4.27 | 2.6 | 7.48 |
| 16.6 | 1.33 | 3.4 | | 3.5 | 4.35 | 2.25 | 8.3 |
| 17.1 | 1.34 | 3.11 | | 3.8 | 5.3 | 3.3 (2) | 10.3 |
| 20.1 | 1.36 | 3.14 | | 3.16 | 5.4 | 3.7 (2) | 10.15 |
| 20.12 (2) | 1.37 | 3.25 | | 3.17a (2) | 5.6 | 3.9 | 10.17 |
| 20.14 (2) | 1.41 | 3.29 | | 3.20 | 5.19 | 3.10 | 13.21 |
| | 2.13 | 3.30 (2) | | 3.23 | 5.32 | 3.12 (2) | 14.7 |
| | 2.23 | 3.34 | | 3.24 | 5.34 | 3.13 | |
| | 2.24 | 4.8 | | 3.31 | 6.4 | 3.17b | |
| | 2.27 | 4.18 | | 3.32 (3) | 6.12 | 3.18 | |
| | 2.39 | 4.19 | | 3.33 (2) | 6.19 | 3.19 | |
| | 2.41 | 4.43 | | 4.4 | 6.40 | 3.22 | |
| | 4.1 | 5.20 | | 4.7 | 6.41 | 3.26 (4) | |

| NEGATIVE LEXICAL TRANSFERS UNDERSTOOD BY SPs | | | | | | | |
|--|-----------|--------------------|--------------------------|----------|----------|---------|------------|
| False Cog. | Borrowing | CoinageNew word | CoinageNew expression | Sem. Ex. | Calque | Col. T. | Subcat. T. |
| | 4.3 | 5.26 | | 4.24 | 6.44 | 3.28 | |
| | 4.9 | 5.29 | | 4.32 | 6.49 | 3.35 | |
| | 4.13 | 5.31 | | 4.33 | 6.89 | 4.21 | |
| | 4.15 | 6.43 | | 4.38 (2) | 7.12 | 4.26 | |
| | 4.17 | 6.77 | | 4.40 | 7.16 | 5.12 | |
| | 4.20 | 7.23 | | 5.2 | 7.18 | 5.13 | |
| | 4.25 | 7.39 | | 5.5 (2) | 7.22 (2) | 5.15 | |
| | 4.28 (2) | 7.44 | | 5.9 | 7.28 | 5.17 | |
| | 4.29 | 7.50 | | 5.18 | 7.47 | 5.27 | |
| | 4.34 | 8.2 | | 5.21 | 8.4 | 5.28 | |
| | 4.36 | 8.7 | | 5.42 | 8.5 | 5.33 | |
| | 4.37 | 8.8 | | 6.7 (2) | 8.17 | 5.37 | |
| | 4.39 | 8.19 | | 6.10 | 9.5 | 5.38 | |
| | 4.42 | 9.37 (2) | | 6.11 | 9.9 (3) | 5.39 | |
| | 4.44 | 9.41 | | 6.29 | 9.15 (2) | 6.3 | |
| | 4.46 | 10.1 | | 6.35 | 9.25 | 6.8 | |
| | 4.47 | 10.2 | | 6.66 | 9.26 (4) | 6.21 | |
| | 5.1 | 13.18 | | 6.72 | 9.33 | 6.28 | |
| | 5.8 | 15.16 | | 6.74 | 9.34 | 6.33 | |
| | 5.10 | 16.4 | | 6.75b | 10.5 | 6.34 | |
| | 5.14 | 16.18 | | 6.76 | 10.9 | 6.42 | |
| | 5.22 | 17.16 | | 7.2 | 10.12 | 6.45 | |
| | 5.23 | 17.17 | | 7.21 | 10.14 | 6.54 | |

| NEGATIVE LEXICAL TRANSFERS UNDERSTOOD BY SPs | | | | | | | |
|--|-----------|--------------------|--------------------------|----------|----------|---------|------------|
| False Cog. | Borrowing | CoinageNew word | CoinageNew expression | Sem. Ex. | Calque | Col. T. | Subcat. T. |
| | 5.24 | 18.8 | | 7.25 | 10.16 | 6.55 | |
| | 5.30 | 19.13 | | | 10.19 | Col. T. | |
| | 5.41 | 20.2 | | 7.26 | 10.20 | 6.62 | |
| | 5.43 | 20.18 | | 7.27 | 10.21 | 6.63 | |
| | 6.6 | 20.22 | | 7.29 | 11.8 | 6.64 | |
| | 6.9 | | | 7.30 | 11.12 | 6.65 | |
| | 6.14 | | | 7.35 | 11.13 | 6.73 | |
| | 6.27 | | | 7.49 | 11.15 | 6.75a | |
| | 6.31 | | | 8.10 (2) | 11.18 | 6.78 | |
| | 6.32 | | | 8.12 | 12.12 | 6.83 | |
| | 6.47 | | | 8.15 | 12.15 | 6.84 | |
| | 6.48 | | | 8.23 | 12.20 | 6.85 | |
| | 6.51 | | | 8.24 (3) | 13.1 | 6.87 | |
| | 6.52 | | | 8.25 (2) | 13.5 | 6.88 | |
| | 6.53 | | | 8.26 | 13.14 | 7.7 (2) | |
| | 6.61 | | | 8.28 (2) | 13.20 | 7.8 | |
| | 6.67 | | | 9.1 | 13.28 | 7.10 | |
| | 6.70 | | | 9.2 | 14.8 | 7.11 | |
| | 6.71 | | | 9.13 | 15.2 (2) | 7.14 | |
| | 6.82 | | | 9.21 | 15.9 | 7.31 | |
| | 7.3 | | | 9.22 | 15.10 | 7.33 | |
| | 7.4 | | | 9.23 | 15.11 | 7.36 | |
| | 7.5 (2) | | | 9.31 | 15.13 | 7.37 | |

| NEGATIVE LEXICAL TRANSFERS UNDERSTOOD BY SPs | | | | | | | |
|--|-----------|--------------------|--------------------------|-----------|--------|----------|------------|
| False Cog. | Borrowing | CoinageNew word | CoinageNew expression | Sem. Ex. | Calque | Col. T. | Subcat. T. |
| | 7.6 (5) | | | 9.32 | 15.14 | 7.51 | |
| | 7.15 | | | 9.40 | 15.15 | 7.52 | |
| | 7.17 (4) | | | 9.43 | 16.7 | 8.9 | |
| | 7.19 | | | 9.44 | 16.8 | 8.11 (2) | |
| | 7.20 | | | 10.4 | 16.22 | 8.13 | |
| | 7.24 | | | 10.6 | 17.3 | 8.14 | |
| | 7.34 | | | 10.8 | 17.6 | 8.16 | |
| | 7.38 | | | 10.10 | 17.8 | 8.29 | |
| | 7.40 | | | 10.22 | 17.9 | 8.31 | |
| | 7.41 (5) | | | 10.27 (2) | 18.4 | 9.3 | |
| | 7.43 (3) | | | 10.29 | 18.7 | 9.6 | |
| | 7.45 (2) | | | 11.2 | 20.3 | 9.16 | |
| | 7.46 | | | 11.6 | 20.15 | 9.30 | |
| | 8.1 (4) | | | 11.14 (2) | 20.17 | 9.36 | |
| | 8.21 | | | 12.3 | | 9.38 | |
| | 8.22 | | | 12.10 (2) | | 9.45 | |
| | 8.32 | | | 12.19 | | 10.11 | |
| | 9.4 | | | 12.21 | | 10.18 | |
| | 9.24 | | | 13.2 | | 10.23 | |
| | 9.27 | | | 13.6 | | 10.28 | |
| | 10.13 | | | 13.7 | | 11.1 | |
| | 10.25 (2) | | | 13.11 | | 11.3 | |
| | 10.30 | | | 13.12 | | 11.10 | |

| NEGATIVE LEXICAL TRANSFERS UNDERSTOOD BY SPs | | | | | | | |
|--|-----------|--------------------|--------------------------|-----------|--------|-----------|------------|
| False Cog. | Borrowing | CoinageNew word | CoinageNew expression | Sem. Ex. | Calque | Col. T. | Subcat. T. |
| | 11.4 | | | 13.13 | | 11.11 | |
| | 12.5 | | | 13.15 | | 11.16 (2) | |
| | 13.19 | | | 13.25 | | 11.17 | |
| | 13.36 | | | 13.26 | | 12.1 | |
| | 14.2 | | | 13.29 | | 12.4 | |
| | 14.4 | | | 13.33 (2) | | 12.7 (2) | |
| | 16.5 | | | 14.1 | | 12.9 | |
| | 16.9 | | | 15.4 | | 12.11 | |
| | 17.10 | | | 15.6 | | 12.13 | |
| | 19.7 | | | 16.1 | | 12.22 | |
| | | | | 16.2 | | 13.8 | |
| | | | | 16.3 | | 13.9 (2) | |
| | | | | 16.13 | | 13.10 | |
| | | | | 16.24 | | 13.16 | |
| | | | | 17.4 (2) | | 13.17 | |
| | | | | 17.5 | | 13.24 | |
| | | | | 17.7 | | 13.27 | |
| | | | | 17.18 | | 13.34 | |
| | | | | 17.19 | | 13.35 | |
| | | | | 18.1 | | 13.37 | |
| | | | | 18.5 | | 15.1 | |
| | | | | 18.6 | | 15.3 | |
| | | | | 18.11 | | 15.5 | |

| NEGATIVE LEXICAL TRANSFERS UNDERSTOOD BY SPs | | | | | | | |
|--|-----------|--------------------|--------------------------|-----------|--------|-----------|------------|
| False Cog. | Borrowing | CoinageNew word | CoinageNew expression | Sem. Ex. | Calque | Col. T. | Subcat. T. |
| | | | | 19.1 | | 15.8 | |
| | | | | 19.4 | | 15.12 | |
| | | | | 19.11 (2) | | 16.10 | |
| | | | | 19.12 | | 16.12 (2) | |
| | | | | 20.5 | | 16.14 | |
| | | | | 20.7 (2) | | 16.20 | |
| | | | | 20.11 (2) | | 16.21 | |
| | | | | 20.13 | | 16.23 | |
| | | | | | | 17.11 | |
| | | | | | | 17.12 | |
| | | | | | | 17.13 | |
| | | | | | | 17.14 | |
| | | | | | | 17.15 | |
| | | | | | | 19.5 | |
| | | | | | | 20.8 (2) | |
| | | | | | | 20.9 | |
| | | | | | | 20.10 | |
| | | | | | | 20.19 | |
| | | | | | | 20.20 | |
| | | | | | | 20.21 (2) | |

Table 23.-Negative lexical transfers understood by SPs

| NEGATIVE LEXICAL TRANSFERS NOT UNDERSTOOD OR UNDERSTOOD MISTAKENLY BY SPs | | | | | | | |
|---|-----------|--------------------|--------------------------|-----------|----------|---------|------------|
| False Cog. | Borrowing | CoinageNew word | CoinageNew expression | Sem. Ex. | Calque | Col. T. | Subcat. T. |
| | | | | | | | |
| 4.6 | 1.8 | 1.40 | 2.31 | 2.14 | 1.19 | 6.37 | 16.16 |
| 9.12 (3) | 1.13 | 2.2 | 9.7 | 2.20 | 4.41 | 6.59 | |
| 9.19 (3) | 1.14 | 2.8 | 9.35 (3) | 3.17a (2) | 5.16 | 9.20 | |
| 16.17 | 1.16 | 2.35 | 13.23 | 4.14 | 5.36 (2) | | |
| 16.19 (2) | 1.18 | 2.43 | 20.4 | 5.7 | 6.2 | | |
| 19.2 (3) | 1.40 | 3.21 | | 5.11 | 6.24 | | |
| | 2.11 | 3.27 | | 6.1 | 6.57 | | |
| | 2.12 (2) | 7.42 | | 6.23 | 9.10 | | |
| | 2.28 | 9.8 | | 6.56 | 9.11 | | |
| | 2.29 | 9.17 | | 6.81 | 9.42 | | |
| | 4.5 (2) | 9.28 | | 7.9 | 9.46 | | |
| | 4.10 | 9.39 | | 8.18 | 11.7 | | |
| | 4.11 | 12.8 | | 12.14 | 11.9 | | |
| | 4.16 | 12.23 | | 12.16 | 12.18 | | |
| | 4.22 | 13.4 | | 13.30 | 13.31 | | |
| | 4.30 | 15.7 | | 14.6 | 17.9 | | |
| | 4.45 | 18.9 (2) | | 18.2 | 19.6 | | |
| | 6.5 | 18.13 | | 18.3 | | | |
| | 6.13 | 18.14 | | 18.12 | | | |
| | 6.16 | 19.9 | | | | | |
| | 6.17 | 19.10 | | | | | |
| | 6.18 | | | | | | |

| NEGATIVE LEXICAL TRANSFERS NOT UNDERSTOOD OR UNDERSTOOD MISTAKENLY BY SPs | | | | | | | |
|---|-----------|--------------------|--------------------------|----------|--------|---------|------------|
| False Cog. | Borrowing | CoinageNew word | CoinageNew expression | Sem. Ex. | Calque | Col. T. | Subcat. T. |
| | 6.20 | | | | | | |
| | 6.22 | | | | | | |
| | 6.25 | | | | | | |
| | 6.30 | | | | | | |
| | 6.36 | | | | | | |
| | 6.38 | | | | | | |
| | 6.39 | | | | | | |
| | 6.46 | | | | | | |
| | 6.50 | | | | | | |
| | 6.58 | | | | | | |
| | 6.60 | | | | | | |
| | 6.68 | | | | | | |
| | 6.80 | | | | | | |
| | 6.86 | | | | | | |
| | 7.1 | | | | | | |
| | 8.6 | | | | | | |
| | 8.20 | | | | | | |
| | 8.27 | | | | | | |
| | 8.30 | | | | | | |
| | 10.7 | | | | | | |
| | 10.24 (2) | | | | | | |
| | 12.2 | | | | | | |
| | 12.6 | | | | | | |

| NEGATIVE LEXICAL TRANSFERS NOT UNDERSTOOD OR UNDERSTOOD MISTAKENLY BY SPs | | | | | | | |
|--|------------------|----------------------------|----------------------------------|-----------------|---------------|----------------|-------------------|
| False Cog. | Borrowing | CoinageNew word | CoinageNew expression | Sem. Ex. | Calque | Col. T. | Subcat. T. |
| | 12.17 | | | | | | |
| | 13.22 | | | | | | |
| | 14.3 | | | | | | |
| | 14.5 | | | | | | |
| | 16.11 | | | | | | |
| | 16.15 | | | | | | |
| | 17.2 | | | | | | |
| | 18.10 | | | | | | |
| | 19.3 | | | | | | |
| | 19.8 | | | | | | |
| | 20.6 | | | | | | |
| | 20.16 | | | | | | |

Table 24.-Negative lexical transfers not understood or understood mistakenly by SPs

While all SPs listened to the USA speakers' recorded speeches they completed a questionnaire in which they expressed whether they understood or not each one of the negative lexical transfers that I had previously identified in my research. The final results are that Spanish speakers understood a total of 598 negative lexical transfers out of 743 - 7 were omitted as listeners were unable to hear those 7 utterances - that were committed by USA participants and analyzed in this paper. This figure represents 80.48% of the total of negative lexical transfers. Whereas, Spanish speakers did not understand 145 negative lexical transfers of the 743 that were used by USA participants, which represents 19.52% of the total. I will not go into these findings in further detail as the final results are offered in Chapter 5.

Chapter Five

Results of analysis

5.1.-Results

A total of 1,013 lexical transfers have been identified within the 20 interviews carried out along this research.

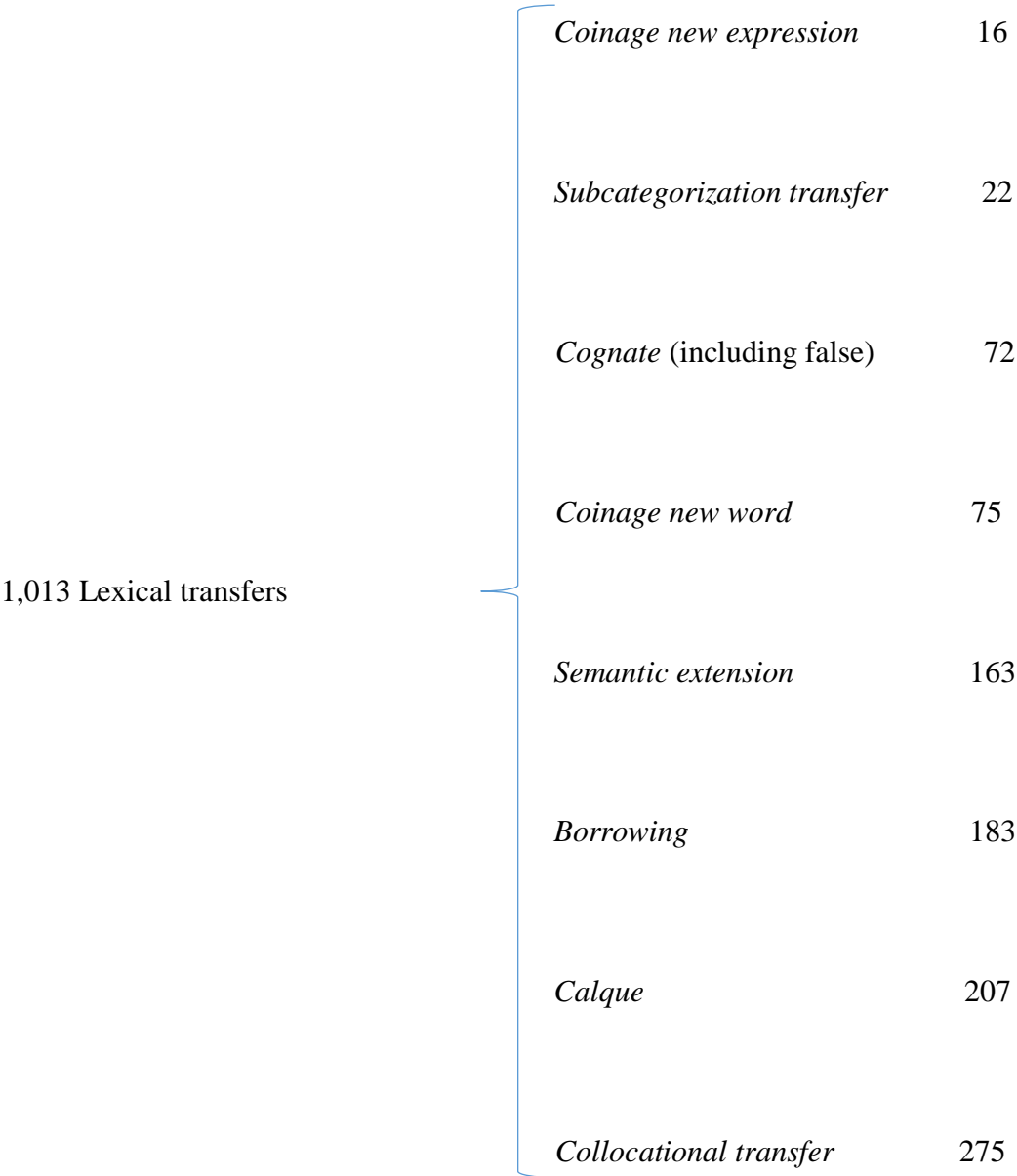


Figure 1

5.1.1.-Positive lexical transfer

As has been mentioned previously in this paper Positive lexical transfer occurs whenever the L1, or any other L2 that a speaker speaks, contributes to communication by providing a facilitating effect, the latter not being the case in this research as none of the participants spoke any language other than English and Spanish. In the case of positive lexical transfer the effect is caused on the lexical level when the lexical items of a speaker's L1 cause a positive effect by facilitating the speaker's expression regarding lexical items. In this study the language that is the source of influence is the participants' L1, English, spoken by North American speakers when maintaining a conversation in their L2, Spanish.

A careful and detailed analysis of the speech of 20 North American participants has been carried out with the aim of identifying correct words and expressions in their L2 that are believed to have their origin in the lexical grounds of the speakers' L1. Identifying positive lexical transfer items is a far more complex task than that of identifying negative lexical transfer items, as it requires much more concentration, a more profound consideration of the possible options each word has and, in fact, a greater risk of error as the researcher cannot assure that the origin is what she believes it to be. Whereas, negative lexical transfer items are simpler to identify as they are erroneous in form.

Nonetheless, 263 positive lexical transfer items have been identified, 122 of which are *collocational transfers*, 100 are *calques* and 41 are *cognates*. It is interesting to note that it is not only the simple translation of words from a speaker's L1 that leads to success in L2 lexical terms, but that true *cognates* and, very significantly, Collocations in a speaker's L1 can also lead to correct collocations of lexical items in the speaker's L2, as they are more frequently than expected coincidental.

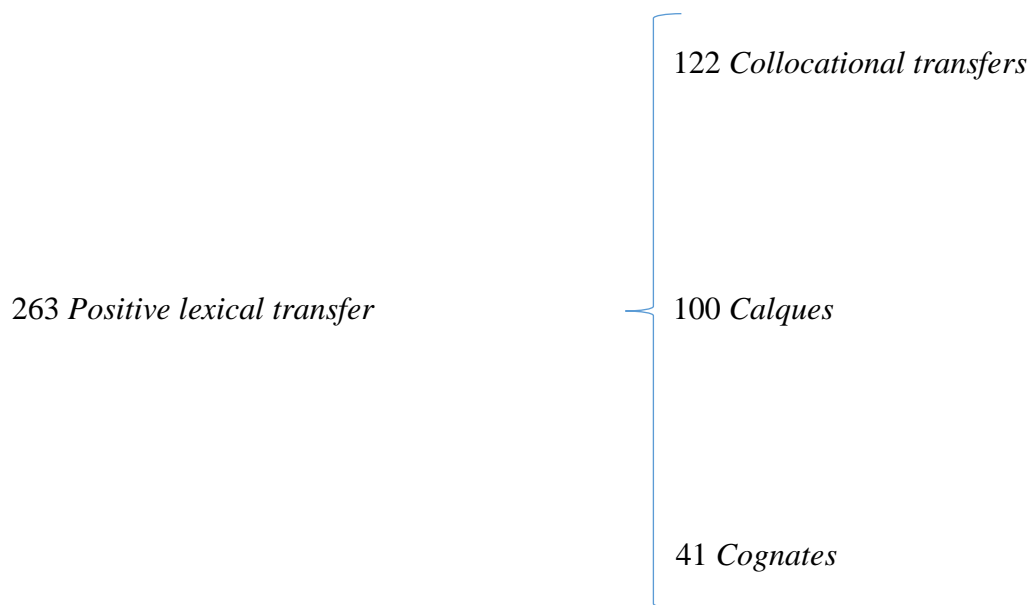


Figure 2

Consequently, 46,38% of the positive lexical transfers found are collocational transfers, 38.02% of the positive lexical transfers found are calques, and 15.58% of the positive lexical transfers found are cognates (see Graph 1 positive lexical transfer). For obvious reasons, no cases of borrowing, false cognate, semantic extension, coinage of new word, coinage of new expression, nor subcategorization transfers have been found as they would have irreversibly led to error and therefore, to negative lexical items.

The difficulty in identifying positive lexical transfers in the oral speech of participants is the main cause of the low number of cases found in this research, as a total of 1,013 Lexical transfers have been found, 263 of which are positive lexical transfers, and 750 are negative lexical transfers. Therefore, the positive lexical transfers found represent 25.96% of the total of lexical transfers found.

Below are some of the most interesting samples of the positive lexical transfers that have been used by several participants which have a common pattern.

5.1.1.1.-Collocational transfers

Adjectives

The comparative form of superiority of adjectives, which coincides in both languages has been widely used, such as: *más negro que...*, *más difícil que...*, *más fácil que...*, *más interesante para...* It is also curious to note that several participants have profited from the use of the definite adjectives *el otro*, *las otras* followed by a noun, as in *el otro idioma*, *otras cosas*; the indefinite singular adjectives *otro/a* followed by a singular noun, as in *otro idioma*, *otra clase*; and from the indefinite plural adjectives *otros/otras* followed by a plural noun, as in *otros lugares*, *otras culturas*, *otros dignatarios*, *otras cosas*. The word “curious” is used because the corresponding words in English, *the other*, *another*, and *other* followed by a noun cause so many problems to Spanish learners of English, but seem to facilitate the correct speech of English speakers when speaking Spanish. The use of the intensifier *so* followed by an adjective has also produced a facilitating effect over participants’ oral speech in their Spanish L2 when using *tan* followed by an adjective in Spanish, as in *tan joven*, *tan bonito*, *tan grande*, *tan importante...*

This similarity in the collocation of the words mentioned above in both languages has simplified the oral speech of participants, as they are common words that are widely used in conversation.

Combinations of words frequently used in means of communication

Other terms that have been found are common combinations of words that co-occur in both languages and that are frequently used in today’s means of communication and in everyday speech. Some of such collocations are: *recursos naturales/natural resources*, *formas de vida/ways of life*, *causa de la violencia/cause of violence*.

5.1.1.2.-Cognates

Cognates, whose formal structure coincides or is almost identical, have definitely caused a facilitating effect over participants' speech. Among some of such words: *influencia/influence*, *oportunidad/opportunity*, *presentación/presentation*, *computadora/computer* (mainly used in Latin America), *específicamente/specifically*, *factoría/factory*, *inmersión/immersion*, *intangible/intangible*, *inmaterial/immaterial*, *opción/option*.

5.1.1.3.-Calques

And finally, calques. It is a fact that most, if not all, lexical transfers may be classified under the category of calque, as lexical transfers are all translations from the speaker's L1 to the speaker's L2. Yet, some show clear evidence of belonging to common combinations of words and should, therefore, be included within the category of collocational transfer; others are identical or very similar in form to words in L2 and should, consequently, be categorized within the cognate category; others are adjectives followed by a verb and an object and the speaker chooses the wrong object, that is, a prepositional object instead of a nominal object as in his L1, and should be, logically, ranked as a subcategorization transfer. All these considerations have been taken into account and conclusions have been reached on the category of each lexical transfer by applying the approach that was most salient in each case. The decision on the categorization of each has been decided upon by taking into account the most likely cause for having produced each lexical transfer, and when no clear reason has led me to include a certain lexical transfer within a more likely classification, I have placed it within the category of calque.

In this research, a large number of the translated terms had to have a combinational cause, therefore, the number of collocational transfers has been more significant than the simple translation of the words, which has resulted in fewer calques, as these have ranked in the second position.

However, translation from the speakers' L1 is the basis of the speech of L2 learners, mainly at basic levels, and it has a facilitating effect over their speech. The cases that have been found do not show any specific pattern as do those classified as collocational transfers, some of which are mentioned: *Tal vez, muy humano, no puede ser active, espero que, ahora es mejor, muy aburrido...*

5. 1. 2.-Negative lexical transfer

When a learner of a foreign language expresses himself in the L2 he is learning, he, as a general rule, does not know nor remembers every word he needs to communicate and he, therefore, reaches out to his L1, or any other L2 he may speak, in an effort to continue his speech and transmit the message he is trying to communicate. The result is that he borrows words from his L1 or any other L2 he may speak, he creates words based on the lexical items of his L1 or any other L2 he may speak, and he translates words from his L1 or any other L2.

Negative lexical transfer occurs when the L1 or any other L2 the speaker may speak causes a negative effect on the speaker's speech as it involves divergences from the lexical norm in the target language. Negative lexical transfer results in the production of errors and it is therefore, easier to identify than positive lexical transfer.

A careful study of the oral speech produced by 20 North American speakers of English when speaking their L2 Spanish has been carried out in an attempt to identify, classify, and analyze the lexical transfers that they commit. As mentioned above, the difficulty in identifying the negative lexical transfers is less significant than that found in identifying the positive lexical transfers as they are far more perceptible. 750 negative lexical transfers have been identified, 183 of which are borrowings, 163 semantic extensions, 153 collocational transfers, 107 calques, 75 coinages of new word, 31 false cognates, 22 subcategorization transfers, and 16 coinages of new expression. This last category has been added as it is not defined in the classification proposed by Jarvis (2009) that has been used as a model for this study. The category of coinage of new expression has been added because 16 cases of expressions that were not creations of words were found, yet, they were new creations of groups of words that

originated from English expressions and resulted in Spanish expressions, which meant that they could not be included in any of the categories offered by Jarvis (2009). As the groups of words were forming a new expression deriving from an English source expression, this terminology has been used to name them.

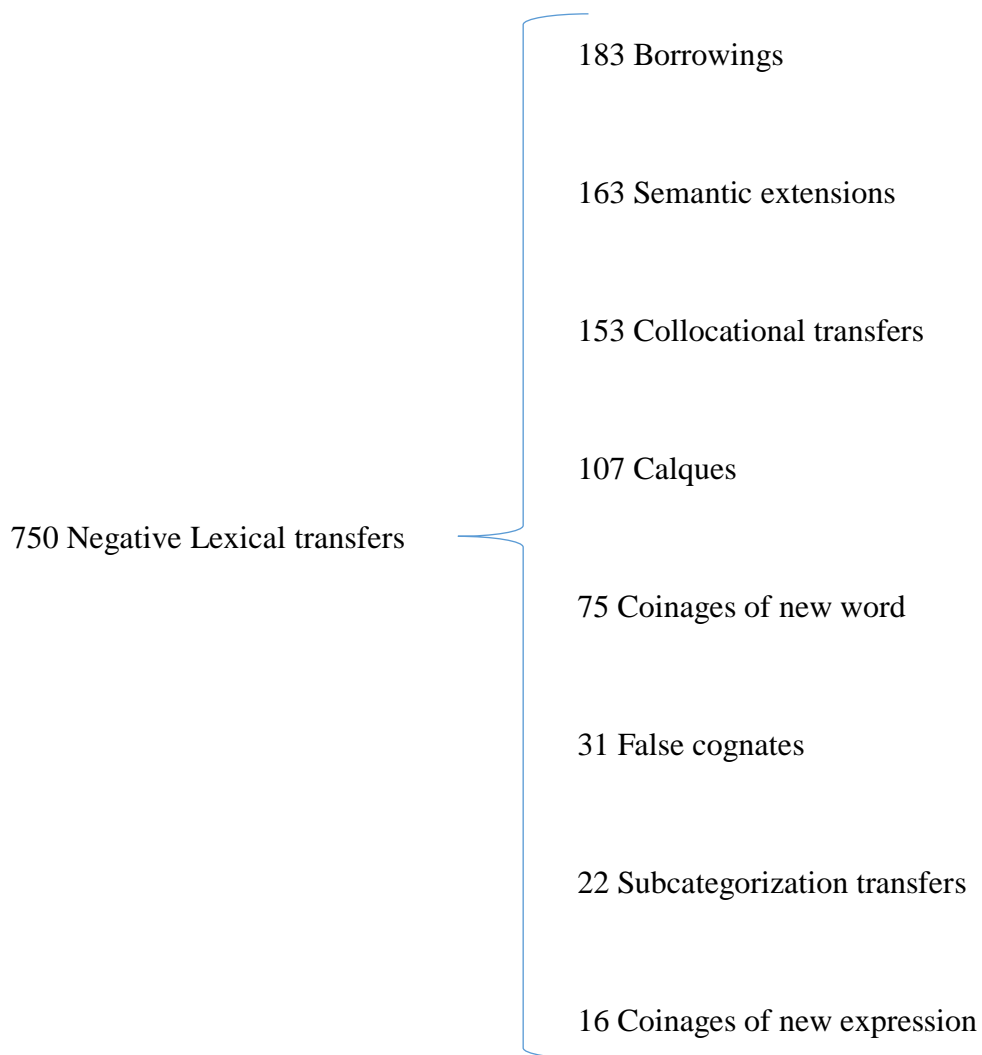


Figure 3

From a percentage perspective, the negative lexical transfers found represent 74.04% of the total of lexical transfers. 24% of these negative lexical transfers are borrowings, 22% are Semantic extensions, 21% are collocational transfers, 14% are calques, 10% are coinages of new word, 4% are false cognates, 3% are subcategorization transfers, and 2% are coinages of new expression. It is interesting to note that cases of all the categories defined by Jarvis

(2009) have been found, in addition to 16 cases of the new category that has been defined as coinage of new expression. As we can see there is a significant difference between the number of positive lexical transfers found, 263, and that of negative lexical transfers, 750, or what is the same in percentages, 25.96% as opposed to 74.04% The great difference being the difficulty in identifying the positive lexical transfers.

The negative lexical transfers that have been most interesting, relevant or peculiar will now be presented.

5.1.2.1.-Borrowing

As for borrowings, which have been the most frequent lexical transfer used by participants, there have been some coincidences, some borrowings have been used by different participants and are for that reason worth mentioning.

Or: The conjunction *or* has been the most repeated borrowing. It has been used a total of 27 times by 7 different participants. The frequent use of this term gives an idea of the difficulty the speakers have in finding connecting words in their L2, which leads them to use the term in their L1. Probably the main reasons for this are: first, the little attention paid to connectors in the foreign language lessons; and second, the very little time the speakers have to think and therefore, resort in specifically difficult moments to their L1. Another reason may be the similarity of these terms in both languages *Or/O*, which may also contribute to speakers not realizing they are in fact using the lexical item in their L1.

So: The conjunction *so* has been used by four different participants in a significant number of occasions, 13 in all. This again gives an idea of the difficulty of finding linking words when communicating in oral speech.

Well: The interjection *well* has been used a total of 9 times by 6 different participants. This case suggests that common interjections used in L1 are habit forming and become fillers that are very difficult to control and avoid, obviously in L1.

Geographical Names: A large number of names of cities, countries, even areas of the world, have been used in L1. Some are: *Norway, London, Latin America, D.C., Netherlands, Florida, Washington D.C., San Francisco, Yukon, Dublin, Munich, and Gibraltar*. These last seven coincide in form in both languages yet, are pronounced very differently. In every case, they have been considered *borrowings* because participants have maintained English pronunciation of these terms and have not tried to adapt them to the Spanish pronunciation.

Names of internet companies, institutions and computer programs: I have considered the use of names of USA companies such as Google, Amazon, UPS; organizations such as F.B.I. and Boston University; as well as computer programs, such as Powerpoint to be *borrowings* because participants have pronounced these names in English and have not given them a Spanish pronunciation.

It is interesting to note that most of the borrowings have been single words and very few participants have used complete expressions or sentences; in fact, the few exceptions are: *I'm losing it, It's pretty tough, I'll think of this, When I drink, Kicked me out, How can I say this?*

I mean: This sentence has been used five times, each time by a different participant. When a speaker is trying to explain a complex idea, his concentration is mainly focused on his explanation and not on the words he chooses. When there is an additional need to re-explain, the effort is even greater, therefore, the speaker tends to resort to his L1 to express very common sentences, such as this one.

The remaining *borrowings* are either very common words that the speakers have used inadvertently, such as: *basketball, bar, meals, happy, more...*; or words for which the speakers have not been able to find the corresponding term in Spanish and have consequently, expressed in English. The latter are words that are not usual and so not commonly known by B2 level learners of Spanish. Some of such words are: *Pilgrims, console, cheesy, tough, minor...*

5.1.2.2.-Semantic extension

With regards to semantic extensions, the most common has been the polysemic verb *be*, which has two equivalents in Spanish, *ser* and *estar*, and are one of the most difficult lexical items for learners of Spanish to understand. This semantic extension has been used in 60 different occasions. All participants except two, participants 12 and 14, have made this semantic extension, which definitely demonstrates the difficulty it entails.

The second most repeated semantic extension has been that of the noun *school* which may be expressed in Spanish by using the noun *colegio*, *escuela*, or *universidad*, depending on the context. The terms have been used a total of 13 times by 7 different participants. Generally, the problem has been the non-use of the term *universidad*, which has been mistakenly referred to by using the term *colegio* or *escuela* when talking about college. Both terms, *colegio* and *escuela*, are used in Spanish to talk about primary and secondary school, but not college.

The verb *take*, which is also polysemic and may be expressed in Spanish by using the verb *tomar*, *llevar*, *pasar*, *ir*, *hacer*, depending on the context, has resulted in a semantic extension that has been used a total of 11 times by six different participants.

The semantic extension of the preposition *to*, which may be translated for *a*, *hacia*, *de*, *para* into Spanish has been used 10 times by 5 participants.

The semantic extension of the preposition *for*, which may be expressed in Spanish by using a variety of prepositions, among which are: *a*, *para*, *por*, and *durante*, has been used 6 times by 3 different speakers.

The semantic extension of the term *program*, which in Spanish may be expressed by using the word *programa* and *curso*, has been used a total of 7 times by 4 different participants. The speakers in all cases chose to use the term *programa* when they were talking about college courses. In proper Spanish, the word *curso* should have been used instead.

Another semantic extension that several participants have used is that of the verb *know*, which in Spanish is equivalent to *saber*, and *conocer*. This lexical transfer has been used a total of 6 times by 4 participants.

The verb *think* has also constituted a semantic extension as it may be expressed in Spanish by either using the verb *creer* or *pensar* and participants chose the inappropriate term when speaking. It has been used a total of 3 times, each time by a different speaker.

The semantic extension that I have found most interesting, due to its complexity, is that of the English word *either*, which can be expressed in Spanish by using the terms *cualquier/a*, *ningún/ninguna*, in addition to the word *tampoco*. The participant used the lexical item *tampoco* when she should have used that of *ninguna*. The complete sentence is: *No me gusta tampoco de las opciones* when talking about two options, therefore, she should have said: *No me gusta ninguna de las opciones*.

5.1.2.3.-Collocational transfer

The third most frequent negative lexical transfer is that of collocational transfer. The most used collocational transfer has been that of *por + period of time*, as a result of the English combination of words *for + period of time*; it has been used a total of 18 times by 7 different speakers. In Spanish, the co-occurrence is *durante + period of time*.

The collocational transfer *un otro*, whose origin is the adjective and pronoun *another* has been used 11 times by 6 different participants. It is curious to note that the adjectives and pronouns *another*, *other*, *others*, *the other* and *the others* as well as their Spanish equivalents, *otro*, *otra*, *otros*, *otras*, *el otro*, *la otra*, *los otros* and *las otras*, cause so many difficulties to learners of both languages. While English native speakers tend to use the terms *un otro*, collocation which does not exist in Spanish, Spanish native speakers seem to use the plural adjective *other* instead of the singular *another* more frequently. So, this is a conflictive area of language for both groups of learners.

Another frequently used collocational transfer has been the combination of words *Depende en*, which has its origin in the English co-occurrence of terms *Depend on*. It has been used a total of 4 times by 4 different speakers.

An interesting collocational transfer that was used by one of the participants was that of a subject finished in a preposition such as: *El hombre que vivo con*, whose origin is the English: *The man I live with*. In Spanish, a subject or a sentence may never end in a preposition as it does in English, which evidently reveals that this expression is a lexical transfer.

Some curious collocations are those referring to time, such as *nueve y media horas*, which is the result of the English combination of the total number of hours followed by the word *hours*, while in Spanish the co-occurrence is different, the word *hours* is placed between the number of hours and the term *half*, resulting in *nueve horas y media*. Other interesting collocational transfers are those referring to parts of the body preceded by a possessive adjective, which co-occur in English such as: *su brazo*, *su labio*, *sus labios*, *su cuerpo*, while in Spanish they are not accompanied by the possessive adjective at all. As a matter of curiosity: the collocations *buscar por*, whose origin is the English combination *look for*, whereas in Spanish the verb *buscar* does not require a preposition; *el internet*, in Spanish simply *internet*, without the definite article *the*; *en lunes*, coming from the English co-occurrence of words *on + day of the week*, whereas in Spanish we use the definite article instead, and say: *el + day of the week*, *el lunes*; and *en la mañana*, coming from the English combination *in the morning*, while in Spanish we do not use the preposition *en*, we use the preposition *por* instead, and say: *por la mañana*.

5.1.2.4.-Calque

Calques have been the fourth most used negative lexical transfer, adding a total of 107, or 14%.

As mentioned earlier, most, if not all, lexical transfers may be classified as *calques*, as *calques* are translations of lexical items from L1 into L2, and lexical transfers are basically translations. However, when the translation shows indications of following some other

pattern such as co-occurrence of words, that lexical transfer would be classified as a collocational transfer; or when the term is polysemous in L1 and has several equivalents in L2 and the speaker chooses the wrong term, that would be a semantic extension; when the form of the term in L1 is identical or almost identical to that of L2 yet different in meaning, that would be a false cognate; when it is obvious that the speaker has created a new term based on his L1, that would be a coinage of a new word; when the creation is not simply a term but a whole expression, that has been considered a coinage of a new expression; when the speaker has used a term in his L1 for lack of knowledge of that term in L2 or because it has slipped his mind, that would be a borrowing; and finally, when the speaker chooses to use a prepositional object instead of a nominal object or vice versa, that would be a subcategorization transfer. As a result, calques are all those lexical transfers that could not be included in any of the other categories and did not show signs of following any other pattern.

Some of the calques that have been outstanding from my perspective either for their closeness to English, or for their being unique, will now be presented:

*No tengo muchos **cuentos** sobre los Yankees.* This is clearly a translation from the speaker's L1, *I don't have many **stories** about the Yankees.*

Dos equinas lejos. This is once again a literal translation of the English: *Two blocks away.*

*Estaba muy divertido el **atmosférico**.* Translation of: *the **atmosphere** was fun.* Though it could have been classified as *coinage of new word*, it was regarded as the result of a translation rather than an invention.

*Es **mal** cosa.* This is a clear translation of the term *bad*, such as in *a bad thing, a bad habit.*

Guerra Mundial Dos. Again, these words could have been considered the result of a co-occurrence of words in English, which they are, but I deemed the translation of the terms to be more relevant than the combination of words, as in fact, the words are not even in the same order as they are in English. It could also have been ranked as a *coinage of a new expression*, yet again, I have disregarded this option as the speaker has not maintained the word order in the Spanish translation.

Los Estados. These words are the literal translation of the colloquial way of referring to *The United States of America*, as *The States*.

Dos semanas pasadas. This is the result of having literally translated the words: *Two last weeks*. Once again, this expression could be considered a common combination of words in English, or a coinage of a new expression, but the English word order has not been maintained and therefore, I believe it should not be included in either of these categories, and should be considered a *calque*.

Se puede ver Isla Larga. This is, once again, a clear translation of the sentence: *You can see Long Island*. In fact, the speaker has created a new name in Spanish, yet, in this case, this is less relevant than the fact that he has literally translated the name of the island from his L1, without placing a definite article before the name of the island, as would be done in Spanish. In the speaker's L2 the definite article would always be used before the name of an island that includes the noun *isla*, as in: *La isla de Menorca*, *La isla de Tenerife*...

Pero después gente ayuda mucho. This case is similar to the previous example. The speaker has translated from his L1: *But then people help a lot*. In English, the noun *people* is not preceded by the definite article, *the*, when speaking of the term in general, so the participant has omitted it in Spanish too, when it is, in fact, necessary. The appropriate expression is: *Pero después la gente ayuda mucho*.

Sí, yo sé. The speaker has translated the verbal form *I know*, by including the subject *I*, which must be used in English before a verbal form, yet is totally unnecessary in Spanish, as the verb itself indicates which the personal pronoun is. This calque has been produced by several speakers.

5.1.2.5.-Coinage of New word

The next negative lexical transfer, in terms of number, is that of coinage of new word, which adds up to 75, representing 10% of the total negative lexical transfers. This category is the result of the creativity of the speaker and is more common in the production of speakers who

take greater risk when speaking. Participants who produced a larger number of coinages of new word were those who do not give up, those who need to transmit the idea they have in mind and are not willing to let anything keep them from doing so. In language learning, these are the individuals who have the greatest possibility of becoming proficient because they are the speakers who take risk, who will go forward no matter what, speakers that keep producing despite the difficulty, they keep producing to communicate their ideas, and production represents practice and realization of mistakes as, occasionally, they will be corrected by listeners, and production is ultimately, the true key to improvement and, consequently, to success.

Some of the most surprising, from a creativity point of view, Coinages of New word are:

A.- Verbal forms:

The verb *muver*, whose origin is the sound of the English verb *move*. Again, this word does not exist in Spanish, as the verb that does exist is *moverse*, with an “o” rather than a “u”. However, the speakers - it was used by three participants - created this verb by modifying the mentioned vowel as a result of the influence of the English phonetics. The three participants did maintain the form of the actual verb in Spanish as they used the second conjugation properly. The actual forms that were used are: the infinitive, *muver*, the reflexive infinitive, *muverse*, and the tense that in Spanish is named pretérito perfecto, *muvió*.

The verb *experienciar*, whose root is the English verb *experience*. The speakers - three participants used this term - have once again, applied the right concept of creation of verbs in the current times, first conjugation ending in “ar”; yet, have nevertheless, created a term that does not exist in Spanish, as the actual verb is *experimentar*. The forms of the verb used are: the infinitive, *experienciar*, the present simple, *ella experiencia*, and the past participle, *experienciado*.

The verb *voluntar*, whose origin is the English verb *volunteer*, such term does not exist in Spanish. Yet, two different speakers produced a form of this verb, one used the infinitive, *voluntar*, and the other the past participle, *voluntado*. Anyhow, both speakers followed the logical system of verbal creation, they used the first conjugation which adds the “ar” ending. Currently, this is the only ending that is used to create new verbs in Spanish, as the second

and third conjugations, those ending in “er” and “ir”, are no longer used as a basis for verbal creation.

The verb *atemptar*, which has been created on the basis of the English verb, *attempt*. Here again, the speaker has followed the system of creation of new verbs that we use in Spanish, making it a verb of the first conjugation, ending in “ar”, the speaker used the form *atempto*, first person singular of the present simple tense. However, this term does not exist in Spanish, we use the verb *intentar*, *tratar de*, *hacer un intento*...

The verb *satisficar*, whose origin is the English verb *satisfy*. The speaker has created this term by adding the ending of the Spanish first conjugation “ar” preceded by the vowel “c”, supposedly to simplify the pronunciation of such an ending. Here again, the speaker has followed the rule of formation on new verbs in Spanish – that of the first conjugation. The speaker used the infinitive form of the verb in his expression.

The verb *biciclar*, term created on the basis of the English verb *bicycle*. The speaker who created this word – participant 9 - used the infinitive of the verb by adding the “ar” ending of the first conjugation, as is usual in current verbal creation.

B.- Noun forms:

Agua Melón, this term has been created on the basis of the English noun *watermelon*. The speaker has translated the English words and maintained the same order in Spanish. The creativity of this speaker – that who has been given number 9 – is outstanding. *Sandía* is the term the speaker should have used. In this case the speaker has simply placed the noun referring to the type of melon before the noun it qualifies, as is done in English. In Spanish, in any event, when creating this new noun, he should have referred first to the main noun, *melón*, followed by the preposition *de*, followed by the noun that defines the type, *water*, that is, *melon de agua*. This, of course, is not the term the speaker should have used, this is simply an explanation of the logic that he should have followed if he had applied Spanish rules.

Papel de arena is a term that was also created by the participant who holds number 9 and is based on the English noun *sandpaper*. In this occasion, he has applied the Spanish logic

regarding order and noun combination, as he has followed the Spanish grouping of nouns by saying what kind of paper it is, followed by the preposition “de” used to join the noun *paper* to the type of paper, *arena*, resulting in *papel de arena*. The Spanish term used for this object is *papel de lija*, so the speaker’s creation is not so far-fetched.

Accento is a term that was used by two different speakers— participants 3 and 8- and is based on the English noun *accent*. The speaker has reproduced the sound of the word in English and added the vowel “o” used to form the masculine nouns, thus creating the Spanish term *accento*.

Basquetas is a word the participant created on the basis of the English noun *basket*. The speaker has added the ending “as” to form the plural noun *basquetas*. Nevertheless, this noun does not exist in Spanish.

Non-lucrativo and *Non-documentados*. These two nouns are clearly based on the English use of the prefix *non-*, meaning *without*. This prefix is definitely not used in Spanish. We would say *sin ánimo de lucro*, which would be used as an adjective, never as a noun, in the former, and *indocumentados* in the latter. This term may be used formally as an adjective and in journalistic English, as a noun.

C.- Adjectives:

The most significant adjectives that participants have used are:

Fluente, whose origin is the English adjective *fluent*, to which the speaker has added the vowel “e” to make it sound Spanish. The Spanish term would be *fluido*.

Reusable, a phonetic adaptation of the English adjective *reusable*. The Spanish term would be *reutilizable*.

Unjusto, an adaptation of the English term *unjust*. The speaker has used the English prefix “un-” when he should have used the prefix “in-”, used in Spanish to form this adjective.

Peruviana, a word created on the basis of the English adjective Peruvian. The speaker has added the vowel “a”, to make it feminine. The term in Spanish is *peruana*.

Unoficiales, a creation based on the English adjective *unofficial*, which is formed by using the prefix “un-“, whereas in Spanish there is no prefix used to form this word, we say: no oficiales.

5.1.2.6.-False Cognate

The sixth most common negative lexical transfer used by participants is that of false cognates, as they amount to 31 and represent a 4% of the total. Learners are under the false impression that false cognates are extremely common, however, we see in this research that they, in fact, account only for 4% of the negative lexical transfers. The most significant false cognates used have been: *Discusión/discusiones/discutir*, used 7 times, meaning *talk/have a conversation*, whereas in Spanish it means *argue*; *aplicar/aplicación*, used three times, meaning *apply* for a position, while in Spanish the appropriate term in this case is *solicitar*; *grado*, used 5 times meaning *course*, while in Spanish the correct term for this would be *curso*; and the word *demonstración*, used twice to refer to social protests, which in Spanish is expressed through the word *manifestación*.

5.1.2.7.-Subcategorization transfer

The next most frequently used negative lexical transfer has been that of subcategorization transfer, which accounts for 3% of the total with 22 cases. The most common case within this category has been that which involves an adjective followed by an unnecessary prepositional object. The cases that have been found are: *Difícil para practicar/memorizar/hablar/entender/discutir*; *interesante para mirar/hacer*; *fácil para obtener/aprender*; *mejor para estudiar/hablar*; and *bueno para hablar*. All these objects have been wrongly chosen as they should not have been prepositional. There are 12 different cases of this type of *Subcategorization transfer* out of a total of 22, which accounts for

slightly over 54%. Of the 20 participants 13 have made a subcategorization transfer, 7 of whom have made this type. The next most common subcategorization transfer has been that which involves verbs followed by a prepositional object instead of a nominal object; the cases found are: *Conozco mucho sobre baseball*, *conozco nada sobre el fútbol Americano*, *temo por altura*, *aprender sobre la cultura*, and *ser para hablar*. All of these verbs should have been followed by nominal objects and not prepositional objects.

5.1.2.8.-Coinage of New expression

And finally, the least frequent type of negative lexical transfer has been that of coinage of new expression. This research has found the need to add it to Jarvis's (2009) classification as it concerns groups of words rather than single words, which may be classified under the category of coinage of new word. In addition, this phenomenon is the result of a literal translation of groups of words that form expressions in English, and require a category of its own, rather than be included in that of calque. As has already been mentioned above, most lexical transfers are basically calques, yet may be included in other categories due to specific characteristics of the word. This leads researchers to create a separate category that envelops words that share a more significant common feature. My reason for creating a separate group, in this case, has been the fact that these words form an expression in the source language, English, which the speaker intended to use to create an expression in the target language, Spanish. This fact is the very cause of each and every one of these lexical transfers. 16 coinages of new expression have been found and made by 8 different speakers. These coinages are the following:

En la otra mano, whose source is: *On the other hand*.

El punto de, whose source expression is: *The point of ...* is.

Como el nombre dice, which originates from: *As the name suggests*.

Descanso de primavera, whose origin is: *Spring break*.

¿Qué es el punto? Which originates from: *What's the point?*

A parte de ..., whose source is: *As part of ...*

Más que todo, whose source expression is: *Above all*. This lexical transfer was used 5 times by the same speaker.

Meter mi pie en la puerta, which originates from: *Get my foot in the door*.

Organización Sin Gobierno, whose source expression is: *Non-Governmental Organization*.

Vota de ausencia, whose origin is: *Absentee vote*.

El fin de semana antes de la pasada. This could have been classified as *acCollocational transfer*, but I believe it to form a totally new expression in Spanish, as it is the literal translation of the English expression, *the weekend before last*, therefore, I included it in the *coinage of new expression* category.

Más luego, whose origin is the English adverb *later*. The speaker has identified the “er” of the adverb *later*, as the suffix added to form the comparative of adjectives and adverbs and has therefore, translated it into his L2 for the comparative form *más* followed by the adverb *luego*. However, he has not realized that the Spanish adverb *luego*, corresponds exactly with the English adverb *later*, without the need of the comparative adverb “*más*”. On the other hand, if he had used the adverb *tarde*, he would have needed to use the comparative adverb “*más*”, which would have resulted in the also appropriate expression *más tarde*.

5.1.3.-General results of lexical transfer analysis

Within the 20 interviews recorded from USA speakers of English learners of Spanish, 1013 *lexical transfers* that have been classified according to Bloomfield (1933), Odlin (1989), James (1989), and Ringbom (2007) into positive and negative lexical transfers have been identified, having found 263 positive lexical transfers and 750 negative lexical transfers. The lexical transfers found in this research have then been organized according to the classification offered by Jarvis (2009) and examples of both types *lexemic* and *lemmatic* have been found. Within these two types Jarvis (2009) specified 7 different cases to which one

more has been added, as a result of having found a type of lexical transfer that could not be include in any of those defined by Jarvis (2009). This new type of lexical transfer is the result of the translation of several English expressions, and has therefore, been named coinage of new expression. Thus, the lexical transfers that have been found have been classified within 8 categories, 4 of which correspond to lexemic lexical transfers: cognates, borrowings, coinage of new word, coinage of new expression; and 4 to lemmatic lexical transfers: semantic extension, calque, collocational transfer, and subcategorization transfer.

Participants have used more lemmatic, 667 in all, than lexemic, 346 in all, lexical transfers. As far as the 8 different categories mentioned above, 275 collocational transfers, 207 calques, 183 borrowings, 163 semantic extensions, 75 coinages of new word, 72 cognates, 22 subcategorization transfers, and 16 coinages of new expression have been found.

With regards to positive lexical transfers, the most frequently used type has been that of collocational transfer, 122 cases found, followed by calques, 100 cases found, and cognates, 41 cases found.

As for negative lexical transfers, the order is as follows: 183 borrowings, 163 semantic extensions, 153 collocational transfers, 107 calques, 75 coinages of new word, 31 false cognates, 22 subcategorization transfers, and 16 coinages of new expression.

The total numbers can be seen in Table 25.

| | Lexemic | | | | Lematic | | | |
|--|----------------|-----------|--------------------|--------------------|-----------------------|--------|---------------------------|---------------------|
| | Cognate | Borrowing | Coinagenew word | Coinagenew exp. | Semantic extension | Calque | Collocational transfer | Subcat. transfer |
| Positive lexical transfer | 41 | - | - | - | - | 100 | 122 | - |
| Negative lexical transfer | 31 | 183 | 75 | 16 | 163 | 107 | 153 | 22 |
| Total | 72 | 183 | 75 | 16 | 163 | 207 | 275 | 22 |
| Total | 346 | | | | 667 | | | |

Table 25.- Total numbers of lexical transfers per category

In addition, in relation to the research question posed in Chapter 3 concerning lexical creativity the results of this analysis are as follows: Those participants who use more coinages of new word and coinages of new expression, lexical items that are created by speakers, do tend to use their L1 lexical items – borrowings- in a smaller number and those who create a larger number of words and expressions based on their L1 (coinage), also resort to fewer L1 terms (borrowings). This research has found that this is so in 16 of the 20 cases studied, yet in four, P₁₁, P₁₃, P₁₇, and, P₁₉, the number of borrowings used is identical to that of coinages. Nevertheless, in 80% of the cases studied, lexical creativity does imply that L2 learners experience a greater detachment from their L1. (See Table 26)

| PARTICIPANT | <i>Borrowings</i> | <i>Coinages</i> |
|--------------------|--------------------------|------------------------|
| P ₆ | 35 | 3 |
| P ₅ | 10 | 5 |
| P ₉ | 3 | 14 |
| P ₃ | 0 | 10 |
| P ₇ | 32 | 5 |
| P ₁ | 20 | 5 |
| P ₂ | 13 | 15 |
| P ₄ | 27 | 4 |
| P ₈ | 11 | 4 |
| P ₁₀ | 7 | 3 |
| P ₁₈ | 1 | 5 |
| P ₁₅ | 0 | 2 |
| P ₁₇ | 2 | 2 |
| P ₁₄ | 4 | 0 |
| P ₂₀ | 2 | 4 |
| P ₁₉ | 3 | 3 |
| P ₁₃ | 3 | 3 |
| P ₁₂ | 4 | 2 |
| P ₁₆ | 4 | 2 |
| P ₁₁ | 1 | 1 |

Table 26.- Contrast between use of borrowings and coinages

The following two tables (Table 27 and Table 28) summarize the total numbers of negative lexical transfers made by each participant, in addition to the total numbers of the different types of negative lexical transfers made by each one of them. The first table (Table 27) offers these results organized by order of participation. And the second table (Table 28) offers the

results with regards to time spent in the interview, and marks the largest numbers in each category.

| | Participant | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 | 11 | 12 | 13 | 14 | 15 | 16 | 17 | 18 | 19 | 20 |
|---------|----------------------------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|
| | Recorded time | 0:37:58 | 0:36:59 | 0:38:50 | 0:36:25 | 0:50:07 | 1:01:49 | 0:38:36 | 0:30:10 | 0:47:03 | 0:21:51 | 0:10:19 | 0:11:32 | 0:14:01 | 0:17:23 | 0:18:33 | 0:11:23 | 0:17:35 | 0:19:47 | 0:15:07 | 0:16:23 |
| | Negative lexical T. | 42 | 50 | 50 | 50 | 46 | 93 | 71 | 41 | 61 | 33 | 20 | 25 | 40 | 8 | 17 | 26 | 20 | 15 | 16 | 28 |
| LEXEMIC | False Cognate | 0 | 0 | 0 | 2 | 1 | 3 | 1 | 0 | 8 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 3 | 0 | 0 | 4 | 1 | 0 | 3 | 5 |
| | Borrowing | 20 | 13 | 0 | 27 | 10 | 35 | 32 | 11 | 3 | 7 | 1 | 4 | 3 | 4 | 0 | 4 | 2 | 1 | 3 | 2 |
| | Coinage of New Word | 4 | 12 | 10 | 4 | 4 | 2 | 5 | 4 | 7 | 2 | 0 | 2 | 2 | 0 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 5 | 3 | 3 |
| | Coinage of New Expression | 1 | 3 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 7 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 |
| LEMATIC | Semantic Extension | 5 | 9 | 15 | 9 | 10 | 16 | 10 | 14 | 11 | 8 | 4 | 7 | 13 | 2 | 2 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 5 | 6 |
| | Calque | 3 | 5 | 1 | 4 | 9 | 11 | 7 | 3 | 17 | 8 | 7 | 4 | 6 | 1 | 8 | 3 | 4 | 2 | 1 | 3 |
| | Collocational Transfer | 8 | 4 | 19 | 2 | 11 | 24 | 13 | 8 | 8 | 4 | 7 | 8 | 11 | 0 | 5 | 7 | 5 | 0 | 1 | 8 |
| | Subcategorization Transfer | 1 | 4 | 4 | 2 | 0 | 1 | 3 | 1 | 0 | 3 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |

Table 27.-Negative Lexical Transfer per participant

| | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|---------|----------------------------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|
| | Participant | 6 | 5 | 9 | 3 | 7 | 1 | 2 | 4 | 8 | 10 | 18 | 15 | 17 | 14 | 20 | 19 | 13 | 12 | 16 | 11 |
| | Recorded time | 1:01:49 | 0:50:07 | 0:47:03 | 0:38:50 | 0:38:36 | 0:37:58 | 0:36:59 | 0:36:25 | 0:30:10 | 0:21:51 | 0:19:47 | 0:18:33 | 0:17:35 | 0:17:23 | 0:16:23 | 0:15:07 | 0:14:01 | 0:11:32 | 0:11:23 | 0:10:19 |
| | Negative Lexical T. | 93 | 46 | 61 | 50 | 71 | 42 | 50 | 50 | 41 | 33 | 15 | 17 | 20 | 8 | 28 | 16 | 40 | 25 | 26 | 20 |
| LEXEMIC | False Cognate | 3 | 1 | 8 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 2 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 5 | 3 | 3 | 0 | 4 | 0 |
| | Borrowing | 35 | 10 | 3 | 0 | 32 | 20 | 13 | 27 | 11 | 7 | 1 | 0 | 2 | 4 | 2 | 3 | 3 | 4 | 4 | 1 |
| | Coinage of New Word | 2 | 4 | 7 | 10 | 5 | 4 | 12 | 4 | 4 | 2 | 5 | 2 | 2 | 0 | 3 | 3 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 0 |
| | Coinage of New Expression | 1 | 1 | 7 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 3 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 |
| LEMATIC | Semantic Extension | 16 | 10 | 11 | 15 | 10 | 5 | 9 | 9 | 14 | 8 | 7 | 2 | 6 | 2 | 6 | 5 | 13 | 7 | 5 | 4 |
| | Calque | 11 | 9 | 17 | 1 | 7 | 3 | 5 | 4 | 3 | 8 | 2 | 8 | 4 | 1 | 3 | 1 | 6 | 4 | 3 | 7 |
| | Collocational Transfer | 24 | 11 | 8 | 19 | 13 | 8 | 4 | 2 | 8 | 4 | 0 | 5 | 5 | 0 | 8 | 1 | 11 | 8 | 7 | 7 |
| | Subcategorization Transfer | 0 | 0 | 0 | 4 | 3 | 1 | 4 | 2 | 1 | 3 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0 | 1 | 0 |

RED NUMBERS INDICATE THE LARGEST FIGURES IN EACH SECTION

Table 28.-Negative Lexical Transfers committed with regards to time spent in the interview

In the light of the immediate table above (Table 28), the speaker who spent a longer period of time speaking made more negative lexical transfers than any other participant. In addition, eight of the nine participants who spoke for over 30 minutes made the greatest number of negative lexical transfers. Of these 9 participants, he who has used a greater number of borrowings (35), and collocational transfers (24) is the participant who has spoken the longest; the speaker who has spoken the third longest has made the greatest number of calques (7), false cognates (8), and coinages of new expression (7); and the participant who ranks the 7th position as regards time of speech, has made the largest number of coinages of new word (12), and subcategorization transfers (4); finally, the speaker who has spoken the 4th longest time has made the largest number of semantic extensions (15). Consequently, I believe it is conclusive to state that the longer a learner speaks, the more negative lexical transfers he makes, as most of the participants' times and numbers of negative lexical transfers support such statement.

5.2.- Results of Spanish speakers' check

5.2.1.-Positive Lexical transfer

The positive lexical transfers were not presented to the Spanish speakers as they are correct in form and meaning and no difficulties in their understanding is ever found.

5.2.2.-Negative Lexical transfer

The final result of this study is that Spanish speakers understood a total of 598 negative lexical transfers out of 743 - 7 were omitted as listeners were unable to hear those 7 utterances - that were committed by USA participants and analyzed in this paper. This figure represents 80.48% of the total of negative lexical transfers. Whereas, Spanish speakers did not understand 145 negative lexical transfers of the 743 that were used by USA participants, which represents 19.52% of the total.

When analyzed within the different categories the results are as follows:

5.2.2.1.-Lexemic Negative Lexical transfers

Regarding *lexemic* negative lexical transfers, the results are:

18 False cognates were understood out of a total of 31, which represents 58.06% of the total of false cognates used by USA participants, and 58.06% of all the negative lexical transfers understood by Spanish speakers

121 Borrowings were understood out of a total of 183, as 2 were omitted, which represents 66.12% of the total of borrowings used by all USA participants, and 66.12% of all the negative lexical transfers understood by Spanish speakers

53 Coinages of a new word were understood out of a total of 75, which represents 70.67% of the total of coinages of new word used by all USA participants, and 8.86% of all the negative lexical transfers understood by Spanish speakers.

8 Coinages of a new expression were understood out of 15, as 1 was omitted, which represents 53.33% of the total of coinages of a new expression used by USA participants, and 1.34% of all the negative lexical transfers understood by Spanish speakers.

5.2.2.2.-Lematic Negative Lexical transfers

As for *lemmatic* negative lexical transfers the results are:

141 Semantic extensions were understood out of 163, which represents 86.50% of the total of semantic extensions used by all USA participants, and 23.58% of all the negative lexical transfers understood by Spanish speakers

90 Calques were understood out of 107, which represents 84.11% of the total of calques used by USA participants, and 15.05% of all the negative lexical transfers understood by Spanish speakers

146 Collocational transfers were understood out of 150, as 3 were omitted, which represents 96.33% of the total of collocational transfers used by all USA participants, and 24.41% of all the negative lexical transfers understood by Spanish speakers

And, finally, 21 subcategorization transfers were understood out of 22, which represents 95.45% of the total of subcategorization transfers used by all USA participants, and 3.51% of all the negative lexical transfers understood by Spanish speakers.

5.2.3.- General results of Spanish speakers' check

| | LEXEMIC | LEMMATIC | TOTAL |
|----------------|--------------|--------------|-------|
| UNDERSTOOD | 200 (66.23%) | 398 (90.25%) | 598 |
| NOT UNDERSTOOD | 102 (33.77%) | 43 (9.75%) | 145 |
| OMITTED | 3 | 4 | 7 |
| TOTAL | 305 | 445 | 750 |

Table 29.- Total of Lexemic and Lemmatic Negative Lexical transfers

Lexemic negative lexical transfers have been more difficult for native Spanish speakers to understand than lemmatic negative lexical transfers. A total of 200 out of 302 - 3 were omitted as listeners were unable to hear those 3 utterances - lexemic negative lexical transfers were understood, which represents 66.23% of the total lexemic negative lexical transfers used by all USA participants, and 33.44% of the total of negative lexical transfers understood by Spanish speakers; whereas 398 lemmatic negative lexical transfers were understood out of a total of 441 - 4 were omitted as listeners were unable to hear those 4 utterances -, which represents 90.25% of the total of lemmatic negative lexical transfers used by USA

participants, and 66.56% of the total of negative lexical transfers understood by Spanish speakers. (See Table 29)

| TYPE | UNDERSTOOD | NOT UNDERSTOOD | OMITTED | TOTAL |
|--------------------------------|------------|----------------|---------|-------|
| FALSE COGNATE | 18 | 13 | - | 31 |
| BORROWING | 121 | 60 | 2 | 183 |
| COINAGENEW WORD | 53 | 22 | - | 75 |
| COINAGENEW EXPRESSION | 8 | 7 | 1 | 16 |
| SEMANTIC EXTENSION | 141 | 21 | 1 | 163 |
| CALQUE | 90 | 17 | - | 107 |
| COLLOCATIONAL TRANSFER | 146 | 4 | 3 | 153 |
| SUBCATERGORIZATION TRANSFER | 21 | 1 | - | 22 |
| TOTAL | 598 | 145 | 7 | 750 |

Table 30.-Total of negative lexical transfers that were understood, not understood, and omitted

Of the different types of negative lexical transfers those which have been most difficult for Spanish speakers to understand, have been the coinages of new expression, 53.33% were understood, followed by false cognates, 58.06%, borrowings, 66.12%, coinages of new word 70.67%, calques, 84.11%, semantic extensions 86.50%, subcategorization transfers, 95.45%, and finally, collocational transfers, 96.33%. (See Table 30).

Chapter Six

Conclusions

6.1.- Answers to research questions

L2 language learners find that lexical knowledge is most difficult to achieve and fight along their learning lifetime to acquire lexical items that allow them to express their thoughts accurately. As we have seen along this paper many researchers believe that lexical errors are the most serious type of error because it interferes with the message the speaker is trying to transmit. This thought is mainly held by native speakers (Johansson 1978, Khalil 1985, Ellis 1994). Agustín Llach (2005) holds that scholars believe lexical errors are the most interfering type of error because they distort communication. “An utterance with a lexical error is less intelligible than another utterance with other types of error” (Agustín Llach 2005, p. 12). In addition, most lexical errors are related to lexical transfers. Within them, those that have been called negative lexical transfers have been regarded by scholars as negative because they are a result of the L1 getting in the way or interfering with the learning of the L2 (Ellis 1985); a result of the influence of the learner’s L1 as it is clearly erroneous in form (Ringbom 1987); a demonstration of the L1 interfering with the learners’ L2 and resulting in “something incorrect” (Gass and Selinker 1993).

Nevertheless, this research has addressed the question of whether negative lexical transfers are truly negative from a communicative perspective and despite the above-mentioned belief, which holds that lexical errors interfere with the message being transmitted, this research has proved that the message is only affected in fewer than 20% of the cases, as over 80% of the negative lexical transfers that have been identified in this research have been properly understood by native speakers of the same characteristics as the L2 learners, that is, college students with similar financial, cultural, social and linguistic features.

As the present research deals with a matter that has not been studied by any researcher, the analysis that has been performed and consequently, this study, is opening new fields of research because it is the first which attempts to demonstrate that negative lexical transfer has, in fact, a positive effect over communication. This fact has been proved with the

collaboration of 20 USA participants and 20 SPs that took part in this study; the USA participants providing samples of lexical transfers and the SPs providing a comprehension exercise of such lexical transfers.

Below are the answers to the research questions that were posed at the beginning of this study that respond and give way to the final conclusions.

The basic question of my research is whether negative lexical transfer is truly negative and what type of effect it has over communication. The proper questions are:

Are negative lexical transfers truly negative?

Do they have a negative effect over communication?

However, before going into this matter I should first present the answer to the following very basic research question:

- Do USA speakers of L1-English learners of L2-Spanish make lexical transfers in their oral L2-Spanish speech?

Through a meticulous study of the speech of 20 participants, I have found that USA speakers of L1- English learners of L2-Spanish do indeed produce lexical transfers in their oral L2-Spanish speech. In fact, I have found 1,013 cases of lexical transfers in this study.

Though the identification of lexical transfers is merely based on the personal appreciation of the researcher, because there is nothing and nobody that can prove that the terms identified as lexical transfers are definitely so, I have presented in this research the lexical transfers that I have, after serious consideration, concluded to be such. My analysis has been based on the knowledge I have of the two languages, and on a deep inductive analysis that I have performed on each and every case, which I have presented in Chapter 4.

As has been repeatedly mentioned along this paper, lexical transfers are classified both as *positive and negative*. *Positive* being those that result in successful expression and *negative* those which derive in erroneous form (*lexemic*), or meaning (*lemmatic*).

With regards to positive lexical transfers, this research has found a smaller number than that of negative lexical transfers. The reason for this difference being the difficulty in identifying positive lexical transfers as they are correct L2 lexical items and their identification is totally subjective and therefore, more unreliable than that of negative lexical transfers, as these are the result of identifying errors, analyzing them, and concluding on whether such errors have their origin in the L1 of the speaker. This fact is supported by Ringbom (2007, p. 6) “Transfer has mostly been discussed in connection with Error Analysis, where learner’s L1-based deviations (especially syntactic ones) from the norm of the TL have been easy to spot, while the ways in which L1-knowledge has facilitated learning are much more difficult to notice.”

Despite the unreliable character of the positive lexical transfer findings, I strongly support those that I have identified because I have merely presented the words which I sincerely believe to be based on the USA speakers’ L1. However, this research does not question the positive effect of positive lexical transfers, as they are correct words and obviously enable the proper delivery of the message. Therefore, I do not question their effect over communication.

Nevertheless, this research does question the appropriateness of the term negative being applied to those transfers that have been called negative lexical transfers, as the term produces an impression that the transfer is bad, wrong, obscure, something speakers and learners should linguistically stay away from. I, as a professional teacher and a researcher, cannot support such a belief and totally disagree with the connotations the term conveys.

Consequently, I have performed a meticulous study of the lexical transfers made by 20 USA participants in oral interviews when speaking Spanish. I have transcribed the interviews, and have then performed an EA that considered the terms that were incorrect as a result of L1 influence. I have performed a deep analysis from a lexical transfer perspective that concluded with, what I have called, the Spanish speakers’ check – presented in Chapter 5-, in which Spanish speakers indicate whether they understand the negative lexical transfers used by the USA speakers or not. This research exercise has revealed that 598/750 (80.48%) of the negative lexical transfers found in this research were understood by the SPs. Once the results determined that this high percentage of negative lexical transfers were subject to being understood, the immediate conclusion is that they have a positive effect over communication.

Of the total of negative lexical transfers only 145/750 (19.52%) have had a negative effect over communication. Therefore, it seems perfectly acceptable to conclude that a significant majority of the negative lexical transfers found in this research have had a positive effect over communication rather than a negative effect.

Are negative lexical transfers truly negative?

In the light of the results presented above, the answer to this fundamental question is that negative lexical transfers are not negative from a communicative perspective. Negative lexical transfers mainly enable communication between speakers of different languages as they allow learners of an L2 to successfully transmit a message to the native speakers of the language being spoken. Therefore, it can be concluded that the main finding of this research is that negative lexical transfers play a positive role in the communication process.

This conclusion is supported by the findings reached in answer to the remaining research questions, which I will now present

- What lexical transfers do USA speakers of L1-English learners of L2-Spanish make in their oral L2-Spanish speech?

I have found that USA speakers of L1-English learners of L2-Spanish make both positive and negative lexical transfers. They use lexemic and lemmatic lexical transfers within both categories. Evidence has been presented in Chapter 4 arguing that the only lexemic lexical transfer that has been found within the positive lexical transfers has been that of cognates, whereas in the lemmatic category, both calques and collocational transfers have been found. As for negative lexical transfers, cases of the 7 different types of lexical transfers defined by Jarvis (2009) have been found, that is, cognates, borrowings, coinages of new word, semantic extensions, calques, collocational transfers, and subcategorization transfers. Furthermore, I have added one new type of negative lexical transfer to this classification, that of coinage of new expression, as I have found whole English expressions that have been translated into Spanish and I was unable to include such combinations of words in the type: coinage of new word. Some of the expressions that I have found are: *La fin de semana antes de la pasada* (the weekend before last), *En la otra mano* (On the other hand), *Como el nombre dice* (As

the name says/suggests), *Voy a meter mi pie en la puerta* (*I'm going to get my foot in the door*), *El descanso de primavera* (*Spring break*), *Más que todo* (*More than anything*), *Organización sin Gobierno* (*Non-Governmental Organization*). I have definitely concluded that these combinations of words constitute expressions which are based on English expressions and must be included in a new category of lexical transfer.

- Which type of lexical transfer is most common when USA speakers of L1-English learners of L2-Spanish express themselves orally in Spanish?

I have found -as can be seen in Table 5 presented in Chapter 5- that collocational transfer is the most common type of lexical transfer once the positive and negative types have been added, a total of 275 within both categories. However, when separating the positive from the negative lexical transfers the result changes because, as can be seen in Table 5, collocational transfer remains the most numerous type of positive lexical transfer, with a total of 122 examples found; whereas, borrowing is the most common negative lexical transfer, with a total of 183 cases found. In the general count, collocational transfers are followed by calques, when considering both positive and negative; whereas when analyzing them independently, it is the second most numerous as for positive lexical transfers but not for negative lexical transfers, where semantic extension is the second one in line. Calques are followed by cognates when taking both positive and negative into account, with a total of 72 cases found; however, when taken independently, they remain the third and last most common type of positive lexical transfers; yet, collocational transfers come in third place as for negative lexical transfers. As I have found only three types of positive lexical transfers because the other five types are logically, for nature reasons impossible to find, the consecutive most common types fall exclusively upon negative lexical transfers. The order being: calques, coinages of new word, false cognates, subcategorization transfers, and finally, coinages of new expression.

- Does lexical creativity imply that L2 learners detach themselves from their L1?

I argue that lexical creativity implies that L2 learners detach themselves from their L1.

The basis upon which lexical creativity is supported is the fact that *coinages* are the maximum expression of formal creativity, as they are words that the speaker invents based on his L1, and *borrowings* are the most significant example of lack of creativity, as they are the words in the speaker's L1.

Those participants who use more coinages of new word and coinages of new expression, lexical items that are created by speakers, do tend to use their L1 lexical items – borrowings - in a smaller number, and those who create a larger number of words and expressions based on their L1 (coinage), also resort to fewer L1 terms (borrowings). This research has found that this is so in 16 of the 20 cases studied, yet in four - P₁₁, P₁₃, P₁₇, and, P₁₉ - the number of borrowings used is identical to that of coinages (See Table 26, Chapter 5). Nevertheless, I conclude that in 80% of the cases studied, lexical creativity does imply that L2 learners experience a greater detachment from their L1.

As mentioned in Chapter 3, the hypothesis is that the more risk a speaker takes, the more creative he will be and will, therefore, use more coinages of new word and coinages of new expression and fewer borrowings than those speakers who take less risk and are, thus, less creative. As seen above, this research has found that this hypothesis has been proved to be so in 80% of the cases studied.

- Does L2 lexical creativity derive in more effective communication?

This research has found that more creativity does lead to a higher level of communication, as the percentage of borrowings that were understood was lower, 121/183 words (66.12%), than that of coinages of new word and coinages of new expression combined, 61/91 words and expressions (67.78%). Yet, the difference is not truly significant. However, taking into account simple creations of words, that is coinages of new word, 70.67% of them were understood by SPs as opposed to 66.12% of borrowings. This result reinforces the standing of my hypothesis. Nevertheless, once the coinages of new expression, which are more complex and difficult to understand creations than simple creation of words, are added to the coinage group, the total percentage is lowered significantly.

- Do Spanish speakers understand the negative lexical transfers produced by USA speakers of L1-English when speaking their L2-Spanish?

The study has found that a significant majority of negative lexical transfers are understood by Spanish speakers. In fact, 80.48% of the negative lexical transfers found in this paper have been understood by Spanish speakers, or what is the same, a total of 598 over 743 –7 have been omitted for reasons of recording distortions - negative lexical transfers.

In the light of the results presented in Table 9, Chapter 5, lexemic negative lexical transfers are more difficult for native speakers to understand than lemmatic negative lexical transfers. A total of 200 out of 302 – 3 were omitted for reasons of recording distortions- lexemic negative lexical transfers were understood, which represents 66.22% of the total lexemic negative lexical transfers used by all USA participants; whereas 398 lemmatic negative lexical transfers were understood out of a total of 441 – 4 were omitted for reasons of recording distortions-, which represents 90.25% of the total of lemmatic negative lexical transfers used by USA participants. Therefore, these results enable me to state that the closer the lexical items are to the formal appearance of the learner's L1 lexicon, the harder it is for L2 native speakers to understand. This statement is supported by the results presented in Chapter 5, as lexemic lexical transfer, that is, false cognates, borrowings, coinages of new word, and coinages of new expression are, in fact, either L1 words in themselves - borrowings and false cognates - or words and expressions that have been created on the basis of the form of L1 terms - coinages of new word and coinages of new expression. While, lemmatic lexical transfer, which concerns transfer of meaning and involves erroneous L2 terms that are literal translations, calques; or wrong choices of corresponding polysemic L1 words, semantic extensions; in addition to unnecessary use of prepositional objects or wrong choice of preposition for prepositional objects, subcategorization transfers; and inadequate combinations of words, collocational transfers; do not have such a devastating effect, from a comprehension point of view, as they interfere with meaning at a significantly smaller scale.

- What number of negative lexical transfers have a positive effect over communication?

A meaningful majority of the negative lexical transfers, 608 out of a total 743 – 7 were omitted for recording distortions-, used by USA speakers were understood by SPs. Thus, 80.48% of the negative lexical transfers used by the USA speakers of L1-English learners of L2-Spanish that have taken part in this research have had a positive effect over communication.

- What number of lexical transfers have a negative effect over communication?

The Spanish speakers that took part in this research did not understand 145 negative lexical transfers of the 743 that were used by USA participants. Therefore, 19.52% of the negative lexical transfers used by the USA speakers of L1-English learners of L2-Spanish that took part in this research have had a negative effect over communication.

Once all the sub-questions have been answered the two main questions of this research will be reviewed:

- Are negative lexical transfers truly negative?
- Do they have a negative effect over communication?

6.2.- Final conclusions

Odlin (1989) believes that transfer is one of the most important facilitators of speech, and in Odlin (1989, p. xi), he adds: “I make no secret of my belief that transfer is an extremely important factor in second language acquisition”.

As can be seen, lexical transfer is one of the most significant characteristics of foreign language learning. It is peculiar as it characterizes each speaker; it is helpful as it enables learners to speak more fluently and aids the speaker by allowing him to go on with his speech.

However, it can become confusing at proficient stages, as the speakers are never 100% sure of whether they are transferring or not.

The main objective of this research is to determine whether negative lexical transfers are truly negative. With this intention, this study has been based in the oral speech of 20 USA participants who have provided very rich material, recorded in oral interviews, which have been transcribed and analyzed. A quantitative and qualitative analysis has been performed on all the data obtained. The quantitative study led to the realization of the fact that lexical transfer does occur in oral speech, it also revealed the number of the lexical transfers used by these speakers, and those which are most frequently used. The classification of positive and negative lexical transfers defined by Bloomfield (1933), Odlin (1989), James (1989), and Ringbom (2007), among others was accepted and applied in this research.

As Ringbom (1987) states:

“It is a relatively straightforward task to compare differences of the learner’s end product, his interlanguage, with the L2-norm and on the basis of these differences conclude that many errors in the learner’s production are clearly influenced by the L1. Whereas, it is much more complicated to specify exactly where or how the learner’s L1 has facilitated his L2-comprehension or L2-production.” (Ringbom 1987, p. 57)

This research considers this statement to be right, and therefore it has ventured into identifying the positive lexical transfers made by the 20 participants through an exhaustive analysis of the correct L2-productions that are believed to derive from L1-productions. In addition, performing an Error Analysis, the negative lexical transfers have been identified. This research has revealed both the positive and the negative lexical transfers used by the USA participants, which were identified, and then classified following Jarvis (2009) classification. Examples of the 7 different types of lexical transfers defined by Jarvis (2009) have been found, in addition to one that was added to that classification, coinage of new expression, as translations of English expressions into Spanish were found that could not be included in the section of coinage of new word. This has resulted in a new finding that had not been previously identified nor classified, with cases such as: *Voto de ausencia* (*absentee vote*), *La fin de semana antes de la pasada* (*the weekend before last*), *En la otra mano* (*On the other hand*), *Como el nombre dice* (*As the name says/suggests*), *Voy a meter mi pie en la*

puerta (I'm going to get my foot inside the door), El descanso de primavera (Spring break), Más que todo (More than anything), Organización sin Gobierno (Non-Governmental Organization), Más luego (later).

In an attempt to contribute to a complex oral production of the 20 USA participants, the interview times were extended in 10 of the interviews, by an average of 25 minutes, in response to Ellis (1996) and Kellerman (1998) definition of the *avoidance effect* that influences the linguistic behavior of speakers of a foreign language by keeping them from using complex structures. The result of this strategy followed has proved to be positive as more complex lexical structures were found in the last 10 interviews – those presented first in this research.

The recordings were, then, presented to 20 Spanish speakers who expressed whether they understood or not, each of the negative lexical transfers that had been identified. These results have been analyzed qualitatively and have shown that a large majority – 80.48% - of negative lexical transfers are understood by native speakers.

I decided to take on this research as I believe vocabulary to be the most important area of language learning, that, which learners find most complex, and that, which is considered never to be completed. It is the area of language learning that never ceases to be learned. I focused on the word, negative, because I questioned the negative quality of these lexical transfers. I have been a teacher of English for over 45 years and have always found that such transfers contribute to transmitting speakers' ideas and are a must in the learning process of a L2, as without lexical error there is little possibility of successfully completing the learning of the lexis of an L2. Thus, the term negative troubled me.

L2 learners see vocabulary as a basic communication tool, without it learners would be unable to communicate with foreign language speakers. Vocabulary is a communicative need and learners of foreign languages are fully aware of the necessity they have of acquiring it. Using the appropriate word to express the speaker's thought is the most effective way of communicating. However, in a global world, such as ours, in this 21st century world, in which the world population needs to speak foreign languages to adapt to the new social environment so as to commercially, financially, industrially, politically, academically... relate, the most

appropriate term is that which comes to the mind of the L2-speaker when trying to communicate. This word should be as close as possible to the term which native speakers use yet, this is not always so. Sometimes it is a word that is closer to the learner's L1; however, from a global communication perspective, if it is understood by the listener it does not matter much whether the term used is, or is not, the word which is originally used by the native speakers of that language. What truly matters is that it conveys the message. Conveying the message is the aim of effective communication.

The fact of living in a global linguistic world, in which millions of people speak foreign languages, makes me wonder whether we, linguists, should not make a greater effort to adapt to the new linguistic reality. I believe we need and should question some of the past linguistic considerations. The main question that this research poses is:

Is the term *negative*, right?

Should we use this term to refer to a linguistic action that contributes to a positive linguistic and social effect?

Should we use a term that is so backward and ill that it conveys a feeling of something that is bad?

Should we use this term when the effect it causes both from a learning and a communicative perspective is good?

This research has proved that what has academically been called *negative lexical transfer* by linguists such as Odlin (1989), Ellis (1985), Ringbom (1987, 2007), and by similar statements such as that of Gass & Selinker (2008), is not truly negative as it has a positive effect over communication.

| Author | Statement |
|--------------------|--|
| Odlin (1989, p.36) | classifies transfers into: <i>I. Positive transfer</i> <i>II. Negative transfer</i> |
| Ellis (1985, p.19) | <i>It is also a popular belief that the role of the L1 in SLA is a negative one. That is, the L1</i> |

| Author | Statement |
|-------------------------------|---|
| | <i>gets in the way or interferes with the learning of the L2, such that features of the L1 are transferred into the L2.</i> |
| Ringbom (1987, p.58) | <i>Positive L1-transfer was taken to mean that the first language had a facilitating effect on L2-learning whereas negative transfer, or interference, caused errors in the learners' production.</i> |
| Ringbom (2007, p.10) | <i>There is both positive and negative transfer, but only negative transfer is immediately visible to the researches.</i> |
| Gass & Selinker (2008, p.450) | <i>Language learners see vocabulary as a basic communication tool and both learners and native speakers recognize the importance of getting the words right and lexical errors are numerous and disruptive.</i> |

Table 31.- References to negative lexical transfer by certain authors

This has been proved to be so in 80.48% of the cases produced by the 20 USA participants who took part in this research. This figure and the conclusion it leads to poses the following questions:

Shouldn't linguistic views adapt to the new global linguistic reality?

Shouldn't we give more importance to communication and learning rather than to correctness?

Shouldn't the terms *negative* and *positive* be overpassed, and other terms chosen?

What term should we use?

Should we use terms such as: **Communicative and Non-communicative**? Could the answer be **Effective and Ineffective**?

It is our responsibility to change what is wrong. Regarding negative lexical transfer, this research has definitely concluded that the name *negative*, is wrong. Consequently, we must change it.

I propose the use of the terms: *Effective lexical transfer* and *Ineffective lexical transfer*, and within both categories *Lexically right* and *Lexically wrong*. I believe we must not be afraid of using the right terms to name the real consequences of the words' effect.

6.3.- Didactic approach

From a didactic perspective, the findings of this research could be useful for foreign language teachers, mainly for Spanish L2-teachers, as it provides information about the lexical transfers that learners may use, about some of the very frequent lexical transfers, and about others that are logical yet, less common. These results could be used as a guide for both L2 teachers and learners, as it shows what types of lexical transfers are most effective, which are not effective, which L1-English words are risky for polysemic reasons, which L1-English collocations tend to be carried over into L2-Spanish, what L1-English prepositional objects learners have a tendency to use in L2-Spanish, in addition to some cognates that do not correspond in meaning in both languages.

This research reveals that the more creative a learner is, the fewer *borrowings* he will use. It shows us how the creation of new expressions is little effective from a communicative perspective, and that creating new terms is more effective than using the term in L1. All these findings can contribute to making learning Spanish as a foreign language easier, and teaching Spanish as a foreign language more effective. It could encourage teachers to allow the use of the lexical transfers in their classrooms, in an attempt to focus on the positive effect of such a phenomenon, allowing lexical transfers to be used in situations of need. Teachers should let learners know that it is not a sin to use such lexical items, it is natural and should not be fought, it should be accepted and used as a learning strategy. Teachers could guide learners along the path of realization, to help them see that they are using a lexical transfer, why they are using it, and what their correct lexical choices may be.

Teachers cannot keep learners from using lexical transfers, on the contrary, teachers should encourage learners to play with lexical items, to venture into new lexical territories, to take lexical risk, to be creative, and to lose the fear of lexical error, that, which all learners feel. As long as learners fear lexical error they do not take lexical risks, and when risk is not taken, the learning process is slowed down or even halted. Teachers have the responsibility of making L2-learners linguistically confident by supporting their expression and encouraging the taking of risk, the most significant risk a language learner can take is at a lexical level.

Therefore, working with the concept of lexical transfer in the classroom can be useful to raise the learners' awareness of this phenomenon and to encourage them to make use of it in their attempt to transmit their thoughts, ideas and needs, even if by doing so they incur in lexical error, because this is the proof that learners are making an attempt to learn and express themselves.

6.4.- Research limitations and further research

This research is limited to the oral speech of USA L1-English speakers, it has also taken a relatively small sample, that of 20 USA participants, thus, results cannot be extrapolated to all the linguistic skills, nor to all the English-speaking community. Therefore, I propose that future research papers contrast these results with those of other English speaking communities and determine whether lexical transfers made by those speakers-learners of L2-Spanish have a positive effect over communication. As a consequence of the results obtained, my proposal of changing the denomination of negative should be further supported or else, rejected.

Bibliography

Adams, J.N., Janse, M. & Swain, S. (eds.), 2002. *Bilingualism in Ancient Society: Language contact and the written text*. Oxford, Oxford University Press.

Aggressive (n.d.). In *Merriam Webster's Online Dictionary*. Available at: <https://www.merriam-webster.com/dictionary/aggressive> (Last accessed on: September 10, 2017).

Aguinaga Echevarria, S. 2012. *Cognate recognition*. Ma Thesis, Auburn University. Available at: <https://etd.auburn.edu/handle/10415/3163> (Last accessed on: September 8, 2017).

Agustín Llach, M.P. 2005. A critical review of the terminology and taxonomies used in the literature on lexical errors. *A Journal of English and American Studies* 31, pp. 11-24.

Agustín Llach, M.P. 2010. Lexical L1 transfer in Spanish EFL writing: Some preliminary conclusions. *Ways and Modes of Human Communication. Ediciones de la Universidad de Castilla- La Mancha* 2, pp. 119-128.

Agustín Llach, M. P. 2010. An overview of variables affecting lexical transfer in writing: A review study. *International Journal of Linguistics*, 2(1), pp. 1-17.

Agustín Llach, M.P. 2010. Lexical gap-filling mechanisms in foreign language writing. *System* 38(4), pp. 529-538.

Agustín Llach, M.P. 2011. *Lexical errors and accuracy in foreign language writing*. Bristol, Multilingual Matters.

Agustín Llach, M.P. 2016a. Lexical transfer and its modelling factors: Insights from research. Paper presented at the Workshop *Crosslinguistic influence: Working with crosslinguistic effects in the classroom*. Universidad de Vitoria-Gasteiz, Vitoria, April 27.

Agustín Llach, M.P. 2016b. Does L1 make a difference? Evidence from the receptive vocabulary size of Spanish and German EFL primary school learners. *The Language Learning Journal*, 44(2), pp. 214-235.

Agustín Llach, M.P. & Jiménez Catalán, R.M. 2007. Lexical reiteration in EFL young learners' essays: Does it relate to the type of instruction? *International Journal of English Studies*, 7(2), pp. 85-103.

Agustín Llach, M.P. & Terrazas Gallego, M. 2009. Exploring the increase of receptive vocabulary knowledge in the foreign language: A longitudinal study. *International Journal of English Studies*, 9(1), pp. 113-133.

Ainciburu, C. 2008. *La adquisición del léxico en las lenguas afines: El aprendizaje de cognados, falsos amigos y palabras nuevas por alumnos italianos de español como lengua extranjera*. PhD dissertation, Universidad Nebrija.

Applied Linguistics (n.d.). AILA Vademecum. Association Internationale de Linguistique Appliquée. Amsterdam, 1992. Available at: <http://www.aila.info/en/research.html> (Last accessed on: July 12, 2017).

Applied Linguistics (n.d.). American Association for Applied Linguistics. Available at: <http://www.aal.org/?page=DefAPLNG> (Last accessed on: July 13, 2017).

Apply (n.d.). In *Merriam Webster's Online Dictionary*. Available at: <https://www.merriam-webster.com/dictionary/apply> (Last accessed on: September 10, 2017).

Arabski, J. 2006. Language transfer in language learning and language contact. In J. Arabski (ed.). *Cross-linguistic influences in the second language lexicon*. Clevedon, Multilingual Matters, pp. 12-21.

Aspirations (n.d.). In *Merriam Webster's Online Dictionary*. Available at: <https://www.merriam-webster.com/dictionary/aspiration> (Last accessed on: March 7, 2017).

Ausubel, D. P. 1968. *Educational psychology: A cognitive view*. New York, Holt, Rinehart & Winston.

Baralo, M. 1996. *Errores y fosilización*. Colección Aula de Español. Madrid, Fundación Antonio de Nebrija.

Baralo, M. 1999. *La adquisición del español como lengua extranjera*. Madrid, Arco Libros.

Baralo, M. 2005. La competencia léxica en el Marco común europeo de referencia. *Carabela*, 58, pp. 27-48.

Baralo, M. 2009. A propósito del análisis de errores: una encrucijada de teoría lingüística, teoría de adquisición y didáctica de lenguas. *Revista Nebrija de Lingüística Aplicada a la Enseñanza de Lenguas*, 5(3), pp. 27-31.

Bialystok, E. & Sharwood Smith, M. 1985. Interlanguage is not a state of mind: An evaluation of the construct of second-language acquisition. *Applied Linguistics*, 6, pp. 101-117.

Bloomfield, L. 1933. *Language*. New York, Holt, Rinehart, and Winston.

- Blum-Kulka, S. & Levenston, E.A. 1978. Universals of lexical simplification. *Language Learning*, 28, pp. 399-415.
- Blum-Kulka, S. & Levenston, E.A. 1983. Universals of lexical simplification. In C. Faerch & G. Kasper (eds.). *Strategies in Interlanguage Communication*. New York, Longman, pp. 119-139.
- Boratynska-Sumara, J. 2014. Lexical transfer research in third language acquisition (TLA) – An overview. *Studia Linguística Universitatis Jagellonicae Cracoviensis*, 131, pp. 137-148.
- Bouvy, C. 2000. Towards the construction of a theory of cross-linguistic transfer. In J. Cenoz & U. Jessner (eds.). *English in Europe. The acquisition of a third language*. Clevedon, Multilingual Matters, pp.143-156.
- Brown, C. & Payne, M. 1994. Five essential steps of processes in vocabulary learning. Paper presented at the *TESOL Convention*, Baltimore, MD.
- Budner, S. (1962). Intolerance of ambiguity as a personality variable. *Journal of Personality*, 30(1), pp. 29-50.
- Burton, G. 2013. Cross-linguistic influence in non-native languages: Explaining lexical transfer using language production models. *International Journal of Multilingualism*, 10 (1), pp. 46-59.
- Carter, R. 1998. *Vocabulary. Applied linguistic perspectives*. London, Routledge.
- Carton, A. 1971. Inferencing: A process in using and learning language. In R. Pimsleur & T. Quinn (eds.). *The psychology of second language learning*. Cambridge, Cambridge University Press, pp. 45-58.
- Cassany, D., Luna, M. & Sanz, G. 2002. *Enseñar lenguas*. Barcelona, Editorial Graó.
- Celaya, M.L., and Naves, M.T. 2009. Age-related differences and associated factors in foreign language writing. In R.M. Manchón (ed.). *Writing in foreign language contexts: learning, teaching, and research second language acquisition*. Bristol, Multilingual Matters, pp. 130-155.
- Celaya, M.L., & Torres, M.R. 2001. L1 influence and EFL vocabulary: Do children rely more on L1 than adult learners? *25th AEDEAN meeting*, proceedings, University of Granada, December 13-15, pp. 1-14.
- Cenoz, J. 2001. The effect of linguistic distance, L2 status and age on cross-linguistic influence in third language acquisition. In J. Cenoz, B. Hufeisen & U. Jessner (eds.). *Cross-linguistic influence in third language acquisition: Psycholinguistic perspectives*. Clevedon, Multilingual Matters, pp. 8-20.

Cenoz, J. 2003. The influence of age in the acquisition of English: General proficiency, attitudes and code-mixing. In M.P. García Mayo & M.L. García Lecumberri (eds.). *Age and the acquisition of English as a foreign language: Theoretical issues and fieldwork*. Clevedon, Multilingual Matters, pp. 77-93.

Chomsky, N. 1959. Verbal behavior by B.F. Skinner. *Language* 35, pp. 26-58.

Chomsky, N. 1966. Linguistic Theory. In R.G. Mead (ed.). *North East Conference on the Teaching of Foreign Languages*. Language Teaching: Broader Contexts. Menasha, George Banta Company, pp. 43-49

Chomsky, N. 1995. *The minimalist program*. Cambridge, MA, MIT Press.

Connections (n.d.). In *Merriam Webster's Online Dictionary*. Available at: <https://www.merriam-webster.com/dictionary/connections> (Last accessed on: September 10, 2017).

Corder, S.P. 1967. The significance of learners' errors. *International Review of Applied Linguistics in Language Teaching (IRAL)*, 5(4), pp. 161-170.

Corder, S.P. 1971. Idiosyncratic dialects and error analysis. *International Review of Applied Linguistics in Language Teaching*, 9(3), pp. 147-159.

Corder, S.P. 1973. *Introducing applied linguistics*. Middlesex, Penguin Books.

Corder, S.P. 1983. A role for the mother tongue. In S. Gass & L. Selinker (eds.). *Language transfer in language learning*. Rowley, Newbury House, pp. 85-98.

Corder, S.P. 1983. Strategies of communication. In C. Faerch & G. Kasper (eds.). *Strategies in interlanguage communication*. New York, Longman, pp.15-20

Council of Europe. 2001. *Common European Framework of Reference for Languages*. Available at: <http://www.coe.int> (Last accessed on: April 23, 2017).

Crossley, S.A., Salsbury, T., McNamara, D.S. & Jarvis, S. 2011. What is lexical proficiency? Some answers from computational models of speech data. *Tesol Quarterly*, 45(1), 182-193.

Cubicle (n.d.). In *Merriam Webster's Online Dictionary*. Available at: <https://www.merriam-webster.com/dictionary/cubicle> (Last accessed on: September 10, 2017).

Dagut, M.B. 1977. Incongruencies in lexical "Gridding" – An application of contrastive semantic analysis to language teaching. *International Review of Applied Linguistics in Language Teaching*, 15(3), pp. 221-29.

De Angelis, G. & Selinker, L. 2001. Interlingual transfer and competing linguistic systems in the multilingual mind. In J. Cenoz, B. Hufeisen & U. Jessner (eds.). *Cross-linguistic influence in third language acquisition: Psycholinguistic perspectives*. Clevedon, Multilingual Matters, pp. 42-58.

De Bot, K. 2004. The multilingual lexicon: Modeling selection and control. *International Journal of Multilingualism*, 1, pp. 17-32.

De Groot, A.M.B. 1992. Determinants of word translation. *Journal of Experimental Psychology: Learning, Memory and Cognition*, 18, pp. 1001-1018.

Demonstration (n.d.). In *Merriam Webster's Online Dictionary*. Available at: <https://www.merriam-webster.com/dictionary/demonstration> (Last accessed on: September 10, 2017).

Denninghaus, F. 1976. Der Kontrollierte Erwerb eines potentiellen Wortschatzes im Fremdsprachenunterricht. *Praxis des Neusprachlichen Unterrichts*, 1, pp. 3-4.

Dentler, S. 2000. Deutsch und Englisch -das gibt immer Krieg! In Dentler, S. Hufeisen, B. & Lindemann, B. (eds.). *Tertiär- und Drittsprachen: Projekte und empirische Untersuchungen*. Tübingen, pp. 42-45.

Dewaele, J.M. 1998. Lexical inventions: French interlanguage as L2 versus L3. *Applied Linguistics*, 19(4), pp. 471-490.

Dewaele, J-M. 2001. Activation or inhibition? The interaction of L1, L2, and L3 on the language mode continuum. In J. Cenoz, B. Hufeisen & U. Jessner (eds). *Cross-linguistic influence in third language acquisition: Psycholinguistic perspectives*. Clevedon, Multilingual Matters, pp. 69-89.

Dewaele, J.M., & Wei, L. 2013. Is multilingualism linked to a higher tolerance of ambiguity? *Bilingualism: Language and Cognition*, 16(1), pp. 231-240.

Different (n.d.). In *Merriam Webster's Online Dictionary*. Available at: <https://www.merriam-webster.com/dictionary/different> (Last accessed on: September 10, 2017).

Dormitory (n.d.). In *Merriam Webster's Online Dictionary*. Available at: <https://www.merriam-webster.com/dictionary/dormitory> (Last accessed on: September 10, 2017).

Dressler, C. 2000. The word-inferencing strategies of bilingual and monolingual fifth graders: A case study approach. Unpublished paper, Harvard Graduate School of Education, Cambridge, MA.

Dulay, H. & M. Brut. 1974. Natural sequences in child second language acquisition. *Language Learning* 24.

Either (n.d.). In *Merriam Webster's Online Dictionary*. Available at: <https://www.merriam-webster.com/dictionary/either> (Last accessed on: September 10, 2017).

Elgort, I. 2011. Deliberate learning and vocabulary acquisition in a second language. *Language Learning*, 61(2), pp. 367–413.

Ellis, R. 1985. *Understanding second language acquisition*. Oxford, Oxford University Press.

Ellis, R. 1994. *The study of second language acquisition*. Oxford, Oxford University Press.

Ellis, R. 1995. Modified oral input and the acquisition of word meanings. *Applied Linguistics*, 16, pp. 409-435.

Ellis, R. 1999. *Learning a second language through interaction*. Amsterdam, John Benjamins Publishing Co.

Emotional (n.d.). In *Merriam Webster's Online Dictionary*. Available at: <https://www.merriam-webster.com/dictionary/emotional> (Last accessed on: September 10, 2017).

Enjuto, M.P. 2013. Transferencias léxicas en el discurso oral de hablantes norteamericanos de L1 inglés aprendientes de L2 español. Trabajo de fin de Máster, Universidad Antonio de Nebrija, Madrid.

Enjuto, M.P. 2014. Lexical Transfer in the spoken interlanguage of USA L1-English speakers-learners of L2-Spanish. Paper presented at the *II Congreso Internacional Nebrija en Lingüística Aplicada a la Enseñanza de Lenguas*. Universidad Antonio de Nebrija, Madrid, June 26-28.

Enjuto, P. 2016. Is negative lexical transfer truly negative? Poster presented at the Workshop *Crosslinguistic influence: Working with crosslinguistic effects in the classroom*. Universidad de Vitoria-Gasteiz, Vitoria, April 27.

Eventually (n.d.). In *Merriam Webster's Online Dictionary*. Available at: <https://www.merriam-webster.com/dictionary/eventually> (Last accessed on: September 10, 2017).

Faerch, C., Haastrup, K & Phillopson, R. 1984. *Learner language and language learning*. Clevedon, Multilingual Matters.

Fernández, S. 1997. *Interlengua y análisis de errores en el aprendizaje del español como lengua extranjera*. Madrid, Edelsa.

Fries, C.C. 1945. *Teaching and learning English as a foreign language*. Ann Arbor, University of Michigan Press.

From (n.d.). In *Merriam Webster's Online Dictionary*. Available at: <https://www.merriam-webster.com/dictionary/from> (Last accessed on: September 10, 2017).

Gaskell, M.G. & Ellis, A.W. 2011. Word learning and lexical development across the lifespan. *Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society*, 364, pp. 3608-3615.

Gass, S.M. 1988. Integrating research areas: A framework for second language studies. *Applied Linguistics*, 9, pp. 198-217.

Gass, S. M. & Selinker, L. 1993. *Second language acquisition: An introductory course*. New Jersey, Laurence Erlbaum Associates.

González Álvarez, E. 2004. *Interlanguage lexical innovation*. München, Lincom Europa.

Grade (n.d.). In *Merriam Webster's Online Dictionary*. Available at: <https://www.merriam-webster.com/dictionary/grade> (Last accessed on: September 10, 2017).

Granger, S. 1993. Cognates: An aid or a barrier to successful L2 vocabulary development. *ITL Review of Applied Linguistics*, 99-100, pp. 43-56.

Grupo Val.Es.Co. 2014. Las unidades del discurso oral. *Estudios de Lingüística del Español*, 35, pp. 13-73.

Haastrup, K. 1985. Lexical inferencing – A study of procedures in reception. *Scandinavian Working Papers on Bilingualism*, 5, pp.63-86.

Haastrup, K. 1991. *Lexical inferencing procedures or talking about words: A book about receptive procedures in foreign language learning with special reference to English*. Tübingen, Gunter Narr.

Hammarberg, B. 2001. Roles of L1 and L2 in L3 production and acquisition. In Cenoz, B. Hufeisen, & U. Jessner (eds.). *Cross-linguistic influence in third language acquisition: Psycholinguistic perspectives*. Clevedon, Multilingual Matters, pp. 21-41.

Hammarberg, B. 2009. Activation of L1 and L2 during production in L3. In B. Hammarberg (ed.). *Processes in third language acquisition*. Edinburgh, Edinburgh University Press, pp. 101-126.

Hammer, P. 1978. The utility of cognates in second language acquisition. Paper presented at the Fifth AILA Congress, Montreal, August 20-26.

Hammer, P. & Monod, M. 1976. *English-French cognate dictionary*. Edmonton, University of Alberta.

Hatch, E. and Brown. C. 1995. *Vocabulary, semantics and language education*. Cambridge, Cambridge University Press.

Haugen, E. 1953. *The Norwegian language in America: A study in bilingual behavior*. Philadelphia, University of Philadelphia Press.

Hotopf, W.H.N. 1980. Semantic similarity as a factor in whole-word slips of the tongue. In V. Fromkin (ed.). *Errors in linguistic performance. Slips of the tongue, ear, pen and hand*. New York, Academic Press, pp. 97-109.

Hyltenstam, K. 1988. Lexical characteristics of near-native second language learners of Swedish. *Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development*, 9, pp. 67-84.

Hymes, D.H. 1972. On communicative competence. In J.B. Pride & J. Holmes (eds.). *Sociolinguistics: Selected readings*. Harmondsworth, Penguin, pp. 269–293.

Individual (n.d.). In *Merriam Webster's Online Dictionary*. Available at: <https://www.merriam-webster.com/dictionary/individual> (Last accessed on: September 10, 2017).

Interference (n.d.). In *Merriam Webster's Online Dictionary*. Available at: <https://www.merriam-webster.com/dictionary/interference> (Last accessed on: February 3, 2017).

James, C. 1998. *Errors in language learning and use. Exploring error analysis*. London, Longman.

Janse, M. 2002. Aspects of bilingualism in the history of the Greek language. In J.N. Adams, M. Janse & S. Swain (eds.). *Bilingualism in ancient society: Language contact and the written text*. Oxford, Oxford University Press, pp. 332-391.

Jarvis, S. 2007. Theoretical and methodological issues in the investigation of conceptual transfer. *Vigo International Journal of Applied Linguistics (VIAL)*, 4, pp. 43-71.

Jarvis, S. & Pavlenko, A. 2008. *Cross linguistic influence in language and cognition*. New York, Routledge Taylor & Francis Group.

Jarvis, S. 2009. Lexical transfer. In A. Pavlenko (ed.). *The bilingual mental lexicon: Interdisciplinary approaches*. Bristol, Multilingual Matters, pp. 99-124.

Jespersen, O. 1922. *Language: Its nature, development and origin*. New York, Holt.

Johansson, S. 1978. *Studies in error gravity: Native reactions to errors produced by Swedish learners of English*. Göteborg, Acta Universitatis Gothoburgensis.

Keatley, C.W. 1992. Cognitive processing in bilinguals: History of bilingualism research in cognitive psychology. *Advances in Psychology*, 83, pp. 15-49.

Keil, F. 1989. *Concepts, kinds and cognitive development*. Cambridge, MIT Press.

Keil, F. 1994. Explanation, association and the acquisition of word meaning. In L. Gleitman & B. Landau (eds.). *The acquisition of the lexicon*. Cambridge, MIT Press, pp. 169-196.

Kellerman, E. 1978. Giving learners a break: Native language intuitions as a source of predictions about transferability. *Working Papers on Bilingualism*, 15, pp. 59-92.

Kellerman, E. & Sharwood Smith, M. 1986. *Cross-linguistic influence in second language acquisition*. Exeter, Pergamon Press.

Kempen, G. & Hoenkamp, E. 1987. An incremental procedural grammar for sentence formulation. *Cognitive Science*, 11(2), pp. 201-58.

Kempen, G. & Huijbers, P. 1983. The lexicalization process in sentence production and naming: indirect election of words. *Cognition*, 14(2), pp. 185–209.

Khalil, K. 1985. Communicative error evaluation: Native speaker's evaluation and interpretation of written errors of Arab EFL learners. *TESOL Quarterly*, 19(2), pp. 335–352.

Know (n.d.). In *Merriam Webster's Online Dictionary*. Available at: <https://www.merriam-webster.com/dictionary/know> (Last accessed on: September 10, 2017).

Krashen, S. D. and Terrell T. D. 1983. *The natural approach: Language acquisition in the classroom*. Hayward, Alemany Press.

Krashen, S.D. 1988. *Second language acquisition and second language learning*. Exeter, Prentice Hall.

Kroll, J. & Stewart, E. 1994. Category interference in translation and picture naming: Evidence for asymmetric connections between bilingual memory representations. *Journal of Memory and Language*, 33, pp. 149-174.

Lado, R. 1957. *Linguistics across cultures*. Ann Arbor, University of Michigan Press.

Lang, P. 2007. *Spoken corpora in Applied Linguistics*. Bern, International Academic Publishers.

Large (n.d.). In *Merriam Webster's Online Dictionary*. Available at: <https://www.merriam-webster.com/dictionary/large> (Last accessed on: September 10, 2017).

Larsen-Freeman, D. and Long, M.H. 1991. *An introduction to second language acquisition research*. London, Longman Group.

Laufer, B. 1990. "Sequence" and "order" in the development of L2 lexis: Some evidence from lexical confusions. *Applied Linguistics*, 11(3), pp. 281-296.

Laufer, B. 1991. Some properties of the foreign language learner's lexicon as evidenced by lexical confusions. *International Review of Applied Linguistics in Language Teaching*, 29(4), pp. 317-330.

Lennon, P. 1990. Error: Some problems of definition, identification, and distinction. *Applied Linguistics*, 12(2) pp. 180-195.

Levelt, W.J.M. 1989. *Speaking: From intention to articulation*. Cambridge, Bradford and MIT Press.

Levenston, E. 1979. Second language acquisition: Issues and problems. *Interlanguage Studies Bulletin*, 4, pp.147-160.

Levinson, S. 1997. From outer to inner space: Linguistic categories and non-linguistic thinking. In J. Nuyts and E. Pederson (eds.). *Language and conceptualization*. Cambridge, Cambridge University Press, pp. 13-45.

Lexeme (n.d.). In *Merriam Webster's Online Dictionary*. Available at: <https://www.merriam-webster.com/dictionary/lexeme> (Last accessed on: December 22, 2016).

Liddicoat, A. (ed.). 1991. *Bilingualism: An introduction*. Melbourne, Australian National Language Institute.

Linguistics Society of America. Available at: <https://www.linguisticsociety.org/resource/applied-linguistics> (Last accessed: July 12, 2017).

Mackey, W.F. 1965. *Language teaching analysis*. Edinburgh, Longman, Green & Co. Ltd.

Malt, B. 1993. Concept structure and category boundaries. In G. Nakamura, D. Medin, & R. Taraban (eds.). *Categorizations by humans and machines*. New York, Academic Press, pp. 363-390.

Meara, P. 1984. The study of lexis in interlanguage. In A. Davies, C. Criper, & A.P.R. Howatt (eds.). *Interlanguage*. Edinburgh, Edimburg University Press, pp. 225-235.

Meara, P. & Jones, G. 1988. Vocabulary size as a placement indicator. In P. Grunwell (ed.). *Applied Linguistics in society*. London, CILT, pp. 80-87.

Meara, P. 1993. The bilingual lexicon and the teaching of vocabulary. In R. Schreuder & B. Weltens (eds.). *The bilingual lexicon*. Amsterdam, John Benjamins, pp. 279-295.

Meara, P. 1996. The dimensions of lexical competence. In G. Brown, K. Malmkjaer & J. Williams (eds.). *Performance and competence in second language acquisition*. Cambridge, Cambridge University Press, pp. 35-53.

Memory (n.d.). In *Merriam Webster's Online Dictionary*. Available at: <https://www.merriam-webster.com/dictionary/memory> (Last accessed on: September 10, 2017).

Meriläinen, L. 2006. *Lexical transfer errors in the written English of Finnish upper secondary school students*. Unpublished licentiate thesis, University of Joensuu.

Merriam Webster Online Dictionary. Available at: <http://www.merriam-webster.com>.

Minor (n.d.). In *Merriam Webster's Online Dictionary*. Available at: <https://www.merriam-webster.com/dictionary/minor> (Last accessed on: September 10, 2017).

Möhle, D. 1989. Multilingual interaction in foreign language production. In H.W. Dechert & M. Raupach (eds.). *Interlingual processes*. Tübingen, Gunter Narr, pp. 179-194.

Molnar, T. 2010. Cognate recognition and L3 vocabulary acquisition. *Acta Universitatis Sapientiae, Philologica*, 2(2), pp. 337-349.

Morrissey, M.D. 1978. A case for "friends". Paper presented at the Fifth AILA Congress, Montreal, August 20-26.

Move (n.d.). In *Merriam Webster's Online Dictionary*. Available at: <https://www.merriam-webster.com/dictionary/move> (Last accessed on: September 10, 2017).

Murphy, S. 2002. *The big book of concepts*. Cambridge, MIT Press.

Nation, I.S.P. 1990. *Teaching and learning vocabulary*. Boston, Heinle and Heinle.

Nation, I.S.P. 2001. *Learning vocabulary in another language*. Cambridge, Cambridge University Press.

Naves, T., Miralpeis, L., & Celaya, M.L. 2005. Who transfer more... and what? Cross-linguistic influence in relation to school grade and language dominance in EFL. *International Journal of Multilingualism*, 2(2), pp. 113-22.

Nemser, W. 1971. Approximative systems of foreign language learners. *International Review of Applied Linguistics in Language Teaching*, 9(2), pp. 115-123.

Neumer, G. 1992. The role of experience in a content-and comprehension-oriented approach to learning a foreign language. In P.J.L. Arnaud & H. Bejoint (eds.). *Vocabulary and Applied Linguistics*. London, Macmillan, pp. 156-166.

Nooteboom, S.G. 1980. Speaking and unspeaking: Detection and correction of phonological and lexical errors in spontaneous speech. In V. Fromkin (ed.). *Errors in linguistic performance. Slips of the tongue, ear, pen and hand*. New York, Academic Press, pp. 87-95.

Object (n.d.). In *Merriam Webster's Online Dictionary*. Available at: <https://www.merriam-webster.com/dictionary/object> (Last accessed on: September 10, 2017).

Odlin, T. 1989. *Language transfer: Cross-linguistic influence in language learning*. Cambridge, Cambridge University Press.

Odlin, T. & Jarvis, S. 2004. Same source, different outcomes: A study of Swedish influence on the acquisition of English in Finland. *The International Journal of Multilingualism*, 1(2), pp. 123-140.

Odlin, T. 2005. Crosslinguistic influence and conceptual transfer: What are the concepts? *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics*, 25, pp. 3-25.

Official (n.d.). In *Merriam Webster's Online Dictionary*. Available at: <https://www.merriam-webster.com/dictionary/official> (Last accessed on: September 10, 2017).

Palmer, H. 1917, 1968. *The scientific study and teaching of language*. London, Oxford University Press.

PS Pires de Sá, D.M. 2010. *Transferencia y calidad del error en la Interlengua de lenguas afines. El caso de estudiantes portugueses de E/LE*. Master thesis, Madrid, Universidad Antonio de Nebrija.

Poullisse, N. 1990. *The use of compensatory strategies by Dutch learners of English*. Dordrecht, Foris.

Poullisse, N. 1993. A theoretical account of lexical communication strategies. In R. Schreuder & B. Weltens (eds.). *The bilingual lexicon*. Amsterdam, John Benjamins, pp.157-189.

Poullisse, N. & Bongaerts, T. 1994. First language use in second language production. *Applied Linguistics*, 15(1), pp. 36-57.

Rababah, G. 2002. Second language communication strategies: Definitions, taxonomies, data elicitation methodology and teachability issues. A review article. *U.S. Department of Education, Educational Resources Information Centre*. Available at: <http://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/ED472698.pdf> (Last accessed on: September 10, 2017).

Render (n.d.). In *Merriam Webster's Online Dictionary*. Available at: <https://www.merriam-webster.com/dictionary/render> (Last accessed on: September 10, 2017).

Richards, J.C. 1976. The role of vocabulary teaching. *TESOL Quarterly*, 10(1), pp. 77-89.

- Ringbom, H. 1986. Crosslinguistic influence and the foreign language learning process. In E. Kellerman & M. Sharwood Smith (eds.). *Crosslinguistic influence in second language acquisition*. Exeter, Pergamon Press, pp. 150-162.
- Ringbom, H. 1987. *The role of the first language in foreign language learning*. Clevedon, Multilingual Matters.
- Ringbom, H. 2001. Lexical transfer in L3 production. In J. Cenoz, B. Hufelsen & U. Jessner (eds.). *Cross-linguistic influence in third language acquisition: Psycholinguistic perspectives*. Clevedon, Multilingual Matters, pp. 59-68.
- Ringbom, H. 2007. *Cross-linguistic similarity in foreign language learning*. Clevedon, Multilingual Matters.
- Ringbom, H. 2012. Review of recent applied linguistics research in Finland and Sweden, with specific reference to foreign language learning and teaching. *Language Teaching*, 45(4), pp. 490-514.
- Roelofs, A. 1992. A spreading-activation theory of lemma retrieval in speaking. *Cognition*, 42, pp.107-142.
- Sabourin, L. 2014. fMRI Research on the bilingual brain. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics*, 34, pp. 1-14.
- Salazar Campillo, P. 2006. The use of circumlocution in the foreign language context. *Porta Linguarum*, 5, pp. 7-15.
- Santos Gargallo, I. 1993. *Análisis contrastivo, análisis de errores e interlengua en el marco de la lingüística contrastiva*. Madrid, Síntesis.
- Selinker, L. 1972. Interlanguage. *International Review of Applied Linguistics*, 10(1), pp. 209-231.
- Selinker, L. 1969. Language transfer. *General Linguistics*, 9, pp. 67-92.
- Serrander, U. 2011. *Bilingual lexical processing in single word production. Swedish learners of Spanish and the effects of L2 immersion*. PhD Dissertation, Uppsala University, Acta Universitatis Upsaliensis.
- Singleton, D. 1999. *Exploring the Second Language Mental Lexicon*. Cambridge, Cambridge University Press.
- Schouten-Van Parrensren, M.C. & Van Parreren, C.F. 1979. De verwerking van een vreemdtalige woordenschat. Een literatuur studie. (Acquisition of foreign language vocabulary. A literary review). *Levende Talen*, 341, pp. 259-270.

Schmid, M. & Jarvis, S. 2014. Lexical access and lexical diversity in first language attrition. *Bilingualism: Language and Cognition*, 17(4), pp. 729-748.

Social (n.d.). In *Merriam Webster's Online Dictionary*. Available at: <https://www.merriam-webster.com/dictionary/social> (Last accessed on: September 10, 2017).

Still (n.d.). In *Merriam Webster's Online Dictionary*. Available at: <https://www.merriam-webster.com/dictionary/still> (Last accessed on: September 10, 2017).

Subject (n.d.). In *Merriam Webster's Online Dictionary*. Available at: <https://www.merriam-webster.com/dictionary/subject> (Last accessed on: September 10, 2017).

Sweet, H. 1899, 1964. *The practical study of languages*. London, Oxford University Press.

Takala, S. 1984. Evaluation of students' knowledge of English vocabulary in the Finnish Comprehensive School. *Reports from the Institute for Educational Research* 350, Jyväskylä University.

Teichroew, F.M. 1982. A study of receptive versus productive vocabulary. *Interlanguage Studies Bulletin*, 6, pp. 3-33.

The M4 Applied Linguistics Network, Treffers-Daller, J., Daller, H.M., Malvern, D., Richards, B., Meara, P. & Milton, J. 2008. Knowledge and use of the lexicon in French as a second language. *Journal of French Language Studies*, 18(3), pp. 269-276.

Think (n.d.). In *Merriam Webster's Online Dictionary*. Available at: <https://www.merriam-webster.com/dictionary/think> (Last accessed on: September 10, 2017).

Thomason, S. and Kaufman, T. 1988. *Language contact, creolization, and genetic linguistics*. Berkeley, University of California Press.

Turnout (n.d.). In *Merriam Webster's Online Dictionary*. Available at: <https://www.merriam-webster.com/dictionary/tournout> (Last accessed on: September 10, 2017).

Vaurio, L. 1998. Lexical inferencing in reading English on the secondary level. Jyväskylä, Jyväskylä University.

Warren, B. 1982. Common types of lexical errors among Swedish learners of English. *Moderna Språk*, 76(3), pp. 209-28.

Weinreich, U. (1963, first published 1953). *Languages in contact. Findings and problems*. The Hague, Mouton.

- Wesche, M. & Paribakht, S. 1996. Assessing second language vocabulary knowledge: Depth versus breadth. *Canadian Modern Language Review*, 53(1), pp.13-40.
- William, S., & Hammarberg, B. 1998. Language switches in L3 production: Implications for a polyglot speaking model. *Applied Linguistics*, 19(3), pp. 295-333.
- Winitz, H. & Reeds, J. 1985. Comprehension and problem solving as strategies for language training. The Hague, Mouton.
- Woodall, B.R. 2002. Language-switching: Using the first language while writing in a second language. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 11(1), pp. 7-28.
- Young, R. 1993. Functional constraints on variation in interlanguage morphology. *Applied Linguistics*, 14, pp. 76-97.
- Zimmermann, R. 1987. Form-oriented and content-oriented lexical errors in L2 learners. *International Review of Applied Linguistics in Language Teaching*, 22(1), pp. 55-67.
- Zughoul, M.R. 1991. Lexical choice: Towards writing problematic word lists. *International Review of Applied Linguistics in Language Teaching*, 29(1), pp. 45-60.

Appendix 1

Questionnaire

1.- ¿Lo entiendes?

Sí

No

¿Qué significa?

2.- ¿Lo entiendes?

Sí

No

¿Qué significa?

3.- ¿Lo entiendes?

Sí

No

¿Qué significa?

4- ¿Lo entiendes?

Sí

No

¿Qué significa?

5.- ¿Lo entiendes?

Sí

No

¿Qué significa?

6.- ¿Lo entiendes?

Sí

No

¿Qué significa?

7.- ¿Lo entiendes?

Sí

No

¿Qué significa?

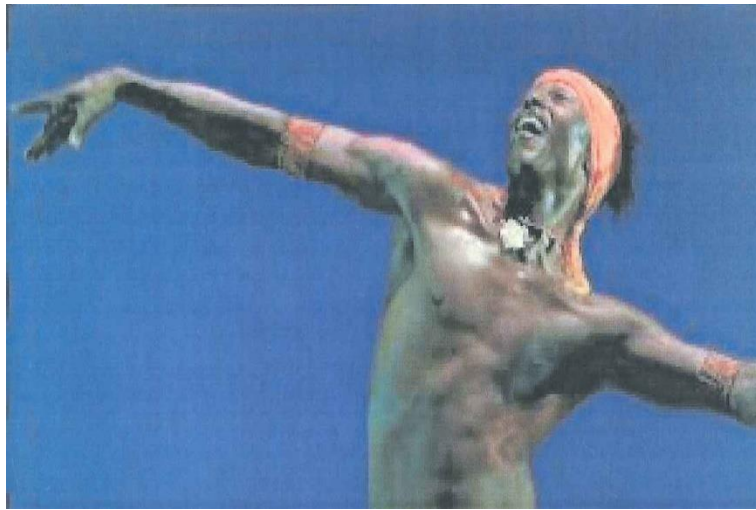
Appendix 2

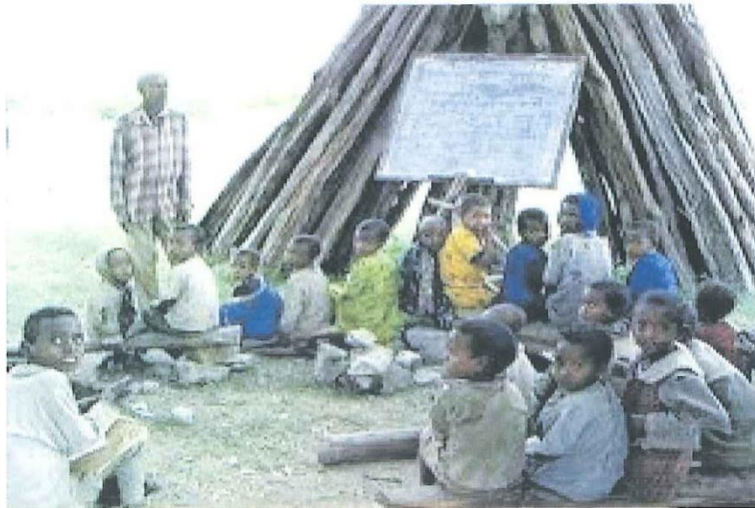
Photographs

The first 7 photographs were used for the 10 first interviews.

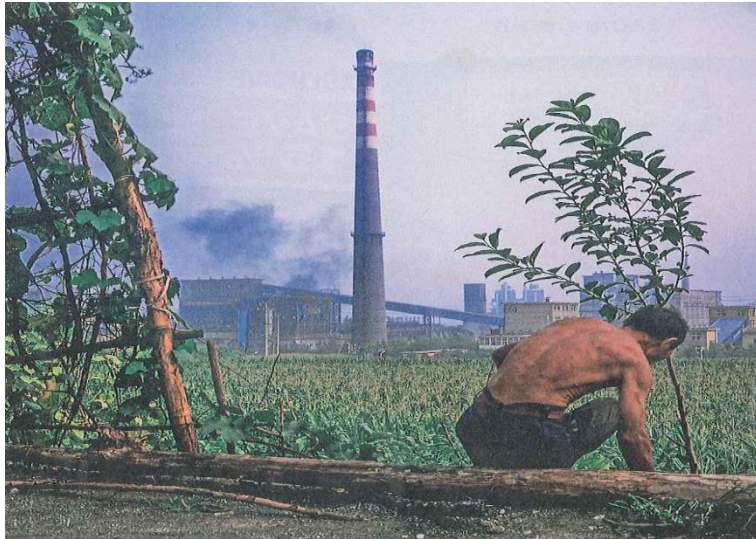
The following 6 photographs were used for the 10 second interviews.















Appendix 3

Val.Es.Co transcription system

APÉNDICE 1

Las unidades del discurso oral.

La propuesta Val.Es.Co. de segmentación de la conversación (coloquial)
Grupo Val.Es.Co.
Universidad de Valencia
www.valesco.es

Signos y convenciones de transcripción

Los signos fundamentales del sistema de transcripción del grupo de investigación Val.Es.Co. son los siguientes:

:

Emisión de un interlocutor

?:

Interlocutor no reconocido.

§

Sucesión inmediata, sin pausa apreciable, entre dos emisiones de distintos interlocutores.

=

Mantenimiento del turno de un participante en un solapamiento.

[

Lugar donde se inicia un solapamiento o superposición.

]

Final del habla simultánea.

-

Reinicios y autointerrupciones sin pausa.

/

Pausa corta, inferior al medio segundo.

//

Pausa entre medio segundo y un segundo.

///

Pausa de un segundo o más.

(5")

Silencio (lapso o intervalo) de 5 segundos; se indica el nº de segundos en las pausas de más de un segundo, cuando sea especialmente significativo.

↑

Entonación ascendente.

↓

Entonación descendente.

→

Entonación mantenida o suspendida.

Cou

Los nombres propios, apodos, siglas y marcas, excepto las convertidas en “palabras-marca” de uso general, aparecen con la letra inicial en mayúscula.

PESADO

Pronunciación marcada o enfática (dos o más letras mayúsculas).

pe sa do

Pronunciación silabeada.

(())

Fragmento indescifrable.

((siempre))

Transcripción dudosa.

((...))

Interrupciones de la grabación o de la transcripción.

(en)tonces

Reconstrucción de una unidad léxica que se ha pronunciado incompleta, cuando pueda perturbar la comprensión.

pa'l

Fenómenos de fonética sintáctica entre palabras, especialmente marcados.

°()°

Fragmento pronunciado con una intensidad baja o próxima al susurro.

h

Aspiración de "s" implosiva.

(RISAS, TOSES

GRITOS...)

Aparecen al margen de los enunciados. En el caso de las risas, si son simultáneas a lo dicho, se transcribe el enunciado y en nota al pie se indica "entre risas".

aa

Alargamientos vocálicos.

nn

Alargamientos consonánticos.

66

¿i !?

Interrogaciones exclamativas.

¿ ?

Interrogaciones. También para los apéndices del tipo "¿no?, ¿eh?, ¿sabes?"

i !

Exclamaciones.

és que se pareix a mosatros: Fragmento de conversación en valenciano. Se acompaña de una nota donde se traduce su contenido al cas

tellano.

Letra cursiva

:

Reproducción e imitación de emisiones. Estilo directo, característico de los denominados relatos conversacionales.

Notas a pie de página: Anotaciones pragmáticas que ofrecen información sobre las circunstancias

de la enunciación. Rasgos complementarios del canal verbal. Añaden informaciones

necesarias para la correcta interpretación de determinadas palabras (la correspondencia extranjera de la palabra transcrita en el texto de acuerdo con la pronunciación real, siglas, marcas, etc.), enunciados o secuencias del texto (p. e., los irónicos), de algunas onomatopeyas, etc.

Sangrados a la derecha: Escisiones conversacionales

* Las incorrecciones gramaticales (fónicas, morfosintácticas y léxicas) no aparecen marcadas por lo general.

Así pues, según el usuario del corpus (p. e., si este es utilizado por un estudiante de español como segunda lengua), puede ser recomendable el soporte explicativo del profesor.

* Los antropónimos y topónimos no se corresponden por lo general con los reales.

Summary of dissertation

Positive aspects of negative lexical transfer

Introduction

The lexical transfers that I have witnessed along my professional career as a teacher of English in Spain have always attracted me. I have felt a special fascination for understanding why the learners choose to lean back on their L1 and why those learners that do so and create new forms, words, and expressions in L2 tend to be much better learners than those that do not. When I decided to study a Master's in Linguistics applied to teaching Spanish as a foreign language I decided to carry out a research that would analyze the opposite transfers, those from L1-English into L2-Spanish. And when I identified the term “turno”, used by one of my participants, as a transfer, I could not resist carrying out this study.

My fascination for the linguistic phenomenon of lexical transfers in the oral speech of foreign language learners stems, as I mentioned above, from my professional savvy and, also, from my experience as a bilingual speaker. Along my professional career, I have heard an infinite number of lexical transfers from speakers of L1-Spanish learners of L2-English, from my Spanish translation pupils, who, at first shocked me, by the attachment they experienced to L2-English terms, and from myself, a bilingual speaker. As such, I am occasionally befuddled when I find myself wondering whether the term I am using is a transfer or not, regardless the language I speak.

I have always felt fascinated by the idea of studying the effect of lexical influence of one language over another, and I have always wondered whether this effect actually has a positive effect over communication or if, on the contrary, it hinders the message being transmitted. The result of my interest is this research, a research that aims to determine whether *negative lexical transfer* truly has a negative effect over communication.

Objectives

This research has focused on lexicon as lexical items are believed to be the basis upon which communication is built, words are the capital linguistic items of expression, those, which students of a foreign language find highly complex and most difficult to learn. Lexis is seen as an essential tool by both learners and speakers of any given language. This fact and the desperate need that L2-learners have of it has inspired this study.

The main aim of the present research is to determine whether *negative lexical transfers* have a negative effect over communication, and consequently, whether the terminology used to define them is appropriate. For this purpose, this research has focused on collecting samples of oral speech of USA speakers of L1-English learners of L2-Spanish, to determine whether they produce lexical transfers when speaking Spanish; once this fact has been proved, the research has gone on to identify the lexical transfers they make in their oral L2-Spanish speech; and finally, to establish the number of such lexical transfers that are understood by L1-Spanish speakers.

Therefore, data has been collected through observation of the naturalistic language characterized by interactional discourse where participants speak on a variety of topics. The speeches have been recorded from 20 USA speakers of L1-English learners of L2-Spanish when speaking Spanish. A success analysis as well as an error analysis have been carried out to identify both the *positive* and *negative lexical transfers* they make, they have been classified, and described and the results have been analyzed. The *negative lexical transfers* have been presented to 20 L1-Spanish speakers to determine the number of *negative lexical transfers* they are able to understand. The results have enabled reaching a conclusion on whether *negative lexical transfers* have a positive or negative effect over communication and whether the naming of these lexical transfers is appropriate.

The specific aims of this research are:

- Identify the lexical transfers that USA participants make;
- classify the lexical transfers that USA participants make;
- determine the number of *negative lexical transfers* that are understood by L1-Spanish speakers.

And additionally, for matters of personal interest:

- Determine whether orally distancing from L1-English and developing a lexical imagination has a greater communicative effect than using L1-English terminology.

Results

Within the 20 interviews recorded from USA speakers of English learners of Spanish, 1013 *lexical transfers* have been identified and classified according to Bloomfield (1933), Odlin (1989), James (1989), and Ringbom (2007) into *positive* and *negative lexical transfers*, having found 263 *positive lexical transfers* and 750 *negative lexical transfers*. The lexical transfers found in this research have then been organized according to the classification offered by Jarvis (2009), and examples of both types *lexemic* and *lemmatic* have been found. Within these two types Jarvis (2009) specified 7 different cases to which one more has been added, as a result of having found a type of lexical transfer that could not be include in any of those defined by Jarvis (2009). This new type of lexical transfer is the result of the translation of several English expressions, and has therefore, been named *coinage of new expression*. Thus, the lexical transfers that have been found have been classified within 8 categories, 4 of which correspond to *lexemic lexical transfers: cognates, borrowings, coinage of new word, coinage of new expression*; and 4 to *lemmatic lexical transfers: semantic extension, calque, collocational transfer, and subcategorization transfer*.

Participants have used more *lemmatic*, 667 in all, than *lexemic*, 346 in all, *lexical transfers*. As far as the 8 different categories mentioned above, 275 *collocational transfers*, 207 *calques*, 183 *borrowings*, 163 *semantic extensions*, 75 *coinages of new word*, 72 *cognates*, 22 *subcategorization transfers*, and 16 *coinages of new expression* have been found.

With regards to *positive lexical transfers*, the most frequently used type has been that of *collocational transfer*, 122 cases found, followed by *calques*, 100 cases found, and *cognates*, 41 cases found.

As for *negative lexical transfers*, the order is as follows: 183 *borrowings*, 163 *semantic extensions*, 153 *collocational transfers*, 107 *calques*, 75 *coinages of new word*, 31 *false cognates*, 22 *subcategorization transfers*, and 16 *coinages of new expression*.

Regarding the number of *negative lexical transfers* understood by Spanish speakers the results are: Spanish speakers understood a total of 598 *negative lexical transfers* out of 743 - 7 were omitted as listeners were unable to hear those 7 utterances - that were committed by USA participants and analyzed in this paper. This figure represents 80.48% of the total of *negative lexical transfers*. Whereas, Spanish speakers did not understand 145 *negative lexical transfers* of the 743 that were used by USA participants, which represents 19.52% of the total.

Lexemic negative lexical transfers have been more difficult for native Spanish speakers to understand than *lemmatic negative lexical transfers*. A total of 200 out of 302 - 3 were omitted as listeners were unable to hear those 3 utterances - *lexemic negative lexical transfers* were understood, which represents 66.23% of the total *lexemic negative lexical transfers* used by all USA participants, and 33.44% of the total of *negative lexical transfers* understood by Spanish speakers; whereas 398 *lemmatic negative lexical transfers* were understood out of a total of 441 - 4 were omitted as listeners were unable to hear those 4 utterances -, which represents 90.25% of the total of *lemmatic negative lexical transfers* used by USA participants, and 66.56% of the total of *negative lexical transfers* understood by Spanish speakers.

In addition, in relation to the research question posed concerning lexical creativity the results of this analysis are as follows: Those participants who use more *coinages of new word* and *coinages of new expression*, lexical items that are created by speakers, do tend to use their L1 lexical items – *borrowings*- in a smaller number and those who create fewer words and expressions based on their L1 (*coinage*), also resort to more L1 terms (*borrowings*). This research has found that this is so in 16 of the 20 cases studied, yet in four, P₁₁ (Participant 11), P₁₃, P₁₇, and, P₁₉, the number of *borrowings* used is identical to that of *coinages*. Nevertheless, in 80% of the cases studied, lexical creativity does imply that L2 learners experience a greater detachment from their L1. Therefore, creativity does appear to have a greater communicative effect than using L1-English terminology.

Conclusions

This research has proved that, what has academically been called *negative lexical transfer* by linguists such as Odlin (1989), Ellis (1985), Ringbom (1987, 2007) and by similar statements such as that of Gass & Selinker (2008), is not truly negative as it has a positive effect over communication.

This has been proved to be so in 80.48% of the *negative lexical transfers* produced by the 20 USA participants who took part in this research. This figure and the conclusion it leads to, poses a number of questions, among which the most significant is:

Shouldn't the terms *negative* and *positive* be overpassed, and other terms chosen?

Consequently

What term should we use?

This study proposes the use of the terms: *Effective lexical transfer* and *Ineffective lexical transfer*, and within both categories *Lexically right* and *Lexically wrong*. We must not be afraid of using the right terms to name the real consequences of the words' effect.

However, from a didactic perspective, the findings of this research could be useful for foreign language teachers, mainly for Spanish L2-teachers, as it provides information about the types of lexical transfers students may use together with a large number of cases. These cases could be used as a guide for both L2-Spanish teachers and learners, because it shows the most effective types of lexical transfers, those that are ineffective, which L1-English words are risky for polysemic reasons, which L1-English collocations tend to be carried over into L2-Spanish, what L1-English prepositional objects learners have a tendency to use in L2-Spanish, in addition to some cognates that do not correspond in meaning in both languages.

These findings can contribute to making learning Spanish as a foreign language easier, and teaching Spanish as a foreign language more effective. They show us that foreign language teachers cannot and must not keep learners from using lexical transfers, on the contrary, teachers should encourage learners to play with lexical items, to venture into new lexical territories, to take lexical risk, to be creative, and to lose the fear of lexical error. As long as learners fear lexical error they do not take lexical risks, and when risk is not taken, the learning process is slowed down or even halted. Teachers have the responsibility of making

L2-learners linguistically confident by supporting their expression and encouraging the taking of risk, and the most significant risk a language learner can take is at a lexical level.

Resumen de la tesis

Aspectos positivos de la transferencia léxica negativa

Introducción

Las transferencias léxicas que he presenciado a lo largo de mi carrera profesional como profesora de inglés en España siempre me han atraído. He sentido fascinación por comprender el motivo por el que los aprendientes deciden apoyarse en su L1, y por qué aquellos aprendientes que lo hacen, creando así nuevas formas, palabras y expresiones en su L2 tienden a ser mejores aprendientes que aquellos que no lo hacen. Cuando decidí estudiar el Máster en “Lingüística aplicada a la enseñanza del español como lengua extranjera” realicé una tesina que analizaba las transferencias contrarias a las que había estado viendo en mi vida profesional, transferencias de L1-inglés a L2-español. Y cuando identifiqué el término “turno”, utilizado por uno de mis participantes, como transferencia, no pude resistirme a realizar este trabajo de investigación.

Mi fascinación por el fenómeno lingüístico de las transferencias léxicas en el discurso oral de aprendientes de lenguas extranjeras deriva, como he mencionado en el párrafo anterior, de mi conocimiento, así como de mi experiencia como persona bilingüe. A lo largo de mi vida profesional, he oído infinitas transferencias léxicas producidas por hablantes de L1-español aprendientes de L2- inglés, de mis alumnos de traducción inglés-español, y de mí misma. Como persona bilingüe a veces me sorprende dudando sobre si el término que estoy utilizando es una transferencia o no, tanto si es del inglés como si es del español.

Siempre he sentido gran atracción por el estudio de cómo influye, desde el punto de vista léxico, una lengua sobre otra, y siempre me he preguntado su efecto sobre la comunicación, es, en realidad, positivo o si, por el contrario, interfiere con el mensaje. El resultado de mi interés es este trabajo de investigación, un trabajo cuyo objetivo es determinar si la *transferencia léxica negativa* tiene un efecto negativo sobre la comunicación.

Objetivos

Esta tesis es un estudio del lexicón porque el léxico es la base sobre la que se apoya la comunicación, las palabras son los elementos básicos de expresión, aquellos que los aprendientes de lenguas extranjeras consideran elementos altamente complejos y difíciles de aprender. Los estudiantes de cualquier L2 y los hablantes de cualquier lengua consideran el léxico una herramienta esencial. Este hecho y la absoluta necesidad que los aprendientes de una L2 tienen del léxico de dicha L2 son los motivos que han inspirado este estudio.

El objetivo principal del presente estudio es determinar si la *transferencia léxica negativa* tiene un efecto negativo sobre la comunicación, y, en consecuencia, si la terminología utilizada para definirlo es apropiada o no. Por este motivo, esta tesis ha recogido muestras de discurso oral de hablantes norteamericanos de L1-inglés aprendientes de L2-español, con el fin de determinar si utilizan transferencias léxicas en su discurso; y una vez que se demostró que sí realizaban transferencias léxicas, se procedió a identificar las transferencias léxicas utilizadas en su discurso; y, por último, a determinar el número de *transferencias léxicas negativas* que los hablantes de L1-español pudieron comprender.

Por ello, se han recogido datos a través de un proceso de grabación y observación del lenguaje natural caracterizado por ser un discurso comunicativo en el que los participantes hablan de una variedad de temas. Se han grabado conversaciones en español con 20 hablantes norteamericanos de L1-inglés aprendientes de L2-español. Se ha realizado un análisis de éxitos, así como un análisis de errores, con el fin de identificar las transferencias léxicas tanto positivas como negativas, que se han clasificado y descrito, para proceder a realizar un análisis de resultados. Se han ofrecido las *transferencias léxicas negativas* cometidas por los 20 participantes norteamericanos a 20 hablantes de L1-español para determinar el número de ellas que se pueden comprender. Los resultados han permitido concluir si las *transferencias léxicas negativas* tienen en realidad un efecto positivo o negativo sobre la comunicación y si su nomenclatura es apropiada o no.

Los objetivos específicos de este trabajo son:

- Identificar las transferencias léxicas utilizadas por los participants norteamericanos;

- clasificar las transferencias léxicas utilizadas por los participantes norteamericanos;
- determinar el número de transferencias léxicas negativas que los participantes de L1-español pueden comprender.

Y, por otra parte, y por motivos de interés personal:

- Determinar si el distanciamiento discursivo de L1-inglés y el hacer un ejercicio de desarrollo imaginativo desde el punto de vista léxico tiene un efecto comunicativo mayor que el de simplemente utilizar terminología en L1.

Se han identificado 1013 transferencias léxicas en las entrevistas grabadas a 20 hablantes norteamericanos de L1-inglés aprendientes de L2-español, todas ellas se han clasificado de acuerdo con Bloombield (1933), Odlin (1989), James (1989), y Ringbom (2007) como *transferencias léxicas positivas y negativas*, habiéndose encontrado 263 *transferencias léxicas positivas* y 750 *transferencias léxicas negativas*. Dichas transferencias se han organizado siguiendo la clasificación ofrecida por Jarvis (2009), encontrándose tanto muestras de transferencias *lexémicas* como de *lemáticas*. Dentro de estos dos tipos Jarvis (2009) identificó 7 casos diferentes, a los que se ha añadido un nuevo tipo, ya que se ha encontrado un tipo de *transferencia léxica negativa* que no podía incluirse en ninguno de los tipos descritos por Jarvis (2009). Este nuevo tipo de *transferencia léxica negativa* es el resultado de la traducción de varias expresiones inglesas, y por ello, se ha denominado *creación de nueva expresión*. Por tanto, las transferencias léxicas que se han identificado se han clasificado dentro de 8 categorías, cuatro de las cuales corresponden a *transferencias léxicas lexémicas*: *cognados*, *préstamos*, *creación de nueva palabra*, y *creación de nueva expresión*; y cuatro *transferencias léxicas lemáticas*: *extensión semántica*, *calco*, *transferencia de colocación*, y *transferencia de subcategorización*.

Los participantes han utilizado más transferencias lemáticas, 667 en total, que lexémicas, 346 en total. Por lo que se refiere al tipo de transferencia léxica, se han encontrado: 275 *transferencias de colocación*, 207 *calcos*, 183 *préstamos*, 163 *extensiones semánticas*, 75 *creaciones de nueva palabra*, 72 *cognados*, 22 *transferencias de subcategorización*, y 16 *creaciones de nueva expresión*.

Con respecto a *transferencias léxicas positivas*, las más comunes han sido las *transferencias de colocación*, habiéndose encontrado 122 casos, seguidos de *calcos*, con 100 casos encontrados, y, por último, *cognados*, con 41 casos encontrados.

Por lo que se refiere a *transferencias léxicas negativas*, el orden es el siguiente: 183 *préstamos*, 163 *extensiones semánticas*, 153 *transferencias de colocación*, 107 *calcos*, 75 *creaciones de nueva palabra*, 31 *falsos cognados*, 22 *transferencias de subcategorización*, y, 16 *creaciones de nueva expresión*.

El resultado del estudio del número de *transferencias léxicas negativas* comprendidas por los participantes de L1-español son los siguientes: 598 de las *transferencias léxicas negativas* fueron comprendidas de un total de 743 (siete de ellas fueron omitidas ya que los participantes de L1-español fueron incapaces de oír dichos siete términos) casos cometidos por los participantes norteamericanos y analizados en este estudio. Este número representa un 80,48% del total de *transferencias léxicas negativas*. Mientras que, los participantes de L1-español no pudieron comprender 145 *transferencias léxicas negativas* de las 743 utilizadas por los participantes norteamericanos, lo que representa un 19,52% del total.

Las *transferencias léxicas negativas* de tipo lexémico fueron más difíciles de comprender que las *transferencias léxicas negativas* de tipo lemático. Se comprendieron 200 de un total de 302 (se omitieron 3 por motivos de imposibilidad de audición) *transferencias léxicas negativas* de tipo lexémico, lo que representa un 66,23% del total de *transferencias léxicas negativas* de tipo lexémico utilizado por los 20 participantes norteamericanos, y un 33,44% del total de *transferencias léxicas negativas* comprendidas por los participantes de L1-español; mientras que se comprendieron un total de 398 *transferencias léxicas negativas* de tipo lemático de un total de 441 (se omitieron 4 por motivos de imposibilidad de audición), lo que representa un 90,25% del total de *transferencias léxicas negativas* de tipo lemático utilizado por los 20 participantes norteamericanos, y un 66,56% del total de las *transferencias léxicas negativas* comprendidas por los participantes de L1-español.

Por otro lado, y por lo que se refiere a la pregunta de investigación propuesta en relación a la creatividad léxica, los resultados de este estudio son los siguientes: Los participantes que utilizaron más *creaciones de nueva palabra* y *creaciones de nueva expresión*, elementos

léxicos creados por los hablantes, sí tienden a utilizar términos de L1, *préstamos*, en menor número que aquellos que crean un menor número de palabras y expresiones basadas en su L1, y además utilizan más *préstamos*. Este estudio ha encontrado que esto es así en 16 de los 20 casos estudiados, aunque en 4, P₁₁ (Participante 11), P₁₃, P₁₇, y P₁₉, el número de *préstamos* utilizado es idéntico al de *creaciones*. En consecuencia, en un 80% de los casos estudiados, la creatividad léxica sí implica que los aprendientes de L2-español experimentan un distanciamiento mayor de su L1. Por lo tanto, la creatividad sí parece tener un efecto comunicativo mayor que el uso de terminología de L1-inglés.

Conclusiones

Este estudio ha probado que, lo que los lingüistas como Odlin (1989), Ellis (1985), Ringbom (1987, 2007) y Gass & Selinker (2008) han venido llamando *transferencia léxica negativa*, no es realmente negativa, ya que, desde el punto de vista de la comunicación, su efecto es positivo.

Este estudio ha demostrado que esto es cierto en el 80,48% de los casos de *transferencia léxica negativa* utilizada por los 20 participantes norteamericanos que tomaron parte en este estudio. Este porcentaje y la conclusión en la que deriva, lleva a un número de preguntas, entre las que la más significativa es:

¿No deberíamos sustituir los términos “positiva” y “negativa” por otros?

Y, en consecuencia,

¿Qué términos deberíamos utilizar?

Este trabajo propone el uso de términos tales como: *Transferencia léxica efectiva* y *transferencia léxica no efectiva*, y dentro de ambas categorías: *correcta* desde el punto de vista léxico, e *incorrecta* desde el punto de vista léxico. No debemos temer el uso de los términos exactos para definir las consecuencias reales del uso de las palabras.

Y, desde el punto de vista didáctico, los resultados de este estudio podrían ser útiles para los profesores de lenguas extranjeras, principalmente para los profesores de español como lengua extranjera, ya que proporciona información sobre el tipo de transferencias léxicas que los aprendientes pueden utilizar además de una amplia muestra de casos. Dichos casos pueden utilizarse como guía tanto por profesores como por aprendientes de L2-español, ya que presenta los tipos más efectivos de transferencia léxica, los tipos menos efectivos, los términos de L1-inglés que son más perniciosos por motivos polisémicos, las colocaciones inglesas que tienden a trasponerse al español, los complementos preposicionales ingleses que los aprendientes tienden a mantener en su L2-español, además de los falsos cognados.

Estas revelaciones pueden contribuir a simplificar el aprendizaje del español como lengua extranjera, y a hacer la enseñanza del español como segunda lengua más efectiva. Nos demuestran que los profesores de lenguas extranjeras no pueden, ni deben, impedir que los aprendientes utilicen transferencias léxicas, por el contrario, deben animar a los aprendientes a jugar con el vocabulario, a ser creativos, y a perder el miedo al error léxico. Ya que cuando un aprendiente siente temor al error léxico es incapaz de arriesgar, y cuando esto ocurre, el proceso de aprendizaje se ralentiza o incluso se detiene. Los profesores de lenguas extranjeras tienen la responsabilidad de hacer que sus aprendientes de L2 sientan seguridad lingüística, dándoles apoyo, apoyando sus expresiones y su léxico y animándoles a arriesgar, y el mayor riesgo que un hablante puede tomar es el riesgo léxico.

Curriculum Vitae

M. PATRICIA ENJUTO QUINN

C/ Víctor de la Serna, 26, 28016, Madrid

91 415 34 99 / 625 04 63 06

patequinn@hotmail.com

FORMACIÓN UNIVERSITARIA

- 2013-2017 Doctoranda en Lingüística Inglesa. Universidad Complutense de Madrid.
Tesis: “Aspectos positivos de la transferencia léxica negativa”
- 2013 Máster en Lingüística Aplicada a la Enseñanza del Español como Lengua
Extranjera. Universidad Antonio de Nebrija. Trabajo de Fin de Máster:
“Transferencias Léxicas en el Discurso Oral de Hablantes Norteamericanos
de L1 Inglés Aprendientes de L2 español”.
- 1993 Licenciatura en Periodismo, Universidad Complutense de Madrid.

CURSOS ACADÉMICOS

- 2014 “Lengua y significado: Semántica y pragmática del inglés” y “Aprendizaje integrado de contenidos y lengua inglesa con contextos bilingües y de inmersión” pertenecientes al Máster en lingüística inglesa, Universidad Complutense de Madrid.
- 2010 “Nuevas aproximaciones al análisis y la enseñanza de la gramática”, Instituto Cervantes y Fundación Instituto Universitario de Investigación Ortega y Gasset, 10 horas.
- 1999 “Formación de Oradores”, Facultad de Filosofía y Letras - Traducción e Interpretación, Universidad Pontificia de Comillas y Servicio Común de Interpretación y Conferencias de la Comisión Europea, 7 horas.
- 1997 “Inglés D”, Universidad de Otoño, Colegio de Licenciados
“Literatura y Nacionalismo en los Países de Habla Inglesa”, UNED
“Inglés para Profesores de Inglés”, British Council
“Humanidades y Nuevas Tecnologías”, UNED
“Discurso Aplicado para Profesores”, Ministerio de Educación y Cultura
“Metodología y Evaluación en la ESO”, Lenguas Extranjeras: inglés, Ministerio de Educación y Cultura

“Cultura y Poder: Comercio”, UNED y Universidad de Alcalá de Henares

1996 “inglés 4”, Universidad de Otoño, Colegio de Licenciados

CERTIFICACIONES Y ACREDITACIONES

2000 Acreditación de Profesora de Lengua Extranjera: inglés en Primero y Segundo Ciclos de la ESO y Bachillerato, Consejería de Educación, Comunidad de Madrid.

1997 Certificado Superior de inglés, Escuela Oficial de Idiomas de Madrid.

1996 Certificado de Aptitudes Pedagógicas (CAP), Universidad Complutense de Madrid.

1992 Certificado de Inglés Comercial, Universidad de Deusto.

1984 Certificado de “Proficiency in English”, Universidad de Cambridge.

EXPERIENCIA PROFESIONAL

- 2017 Profesora de Teoría y Práctica de la Traducción Jurídica y Judicial B-A
(inglés/español) (online) del Máster Universitario de Traducción Especializada, Universidad de Vic y Universidad Central de Cataluña
- 2015-2017 Profesora de Inglés en los grados de Medicina, Fisioterapia, Periodismo, Comunicación Audiovisual, y Bellas Artes y Diseño, Universidad Francisco de Vitoria
- 2001-2017 Profesora de Inglés para ING Direct, Departamento de Tesorería
- 2009-2016 Profesora de Traducción Científico/Técnico Inglés-español
Asignatura “Traducción Especializada Científico/Técnica I; II Y III” a los cursos: Segundo, Cuarto y Quinto de la Licenciatura de Traducción, Universidad Antonio de Nebrija
- 2005-2015 Profesora de Traducción Español-inglés
Asignatura “Traducción General” al Primer Curso de la Licenciatura de Traducción, Universidad Antonio de Nebrija
- 2007-2013 Profesora de Traducción Español-inglés
Asignatura “Traducción Especializada – Jurídica/Económica” a Cuarto Curso de la Licenciatura de Traducción, Universidad Antonio de Nebrija
- 2005-2009 Profesora de Traducción Español-inglés
Asignatura “Introducción a la Traducción Especializada-Jurídica/Económica” al Segundo Curso de la Licenciatura de Traducción, Universidad Antonio de Nebrija
- 2003-2009 Profesora de Inglés para las empresas IBM, Buck Heissman S.L., Globally Eventos y Comunicación, Selliger y Conde, Agrodan S.A., FFB y Consejo de Seguridad Nuclear

- 1998-2002 Profesora de Inglés para el primer y tercer curso del programa “Técnico en Administración y Dirección de Empresas”
Instituto de Postgrado y Formación Continua de ICADE, ICAI,
Universidad Pontificia de Comillas de Madrid
- Profesora de Inglés para el segundo y tercer curso del programa “Técnico en Gestión Comercial”
Instituto de Postgrado y Formación Continua de ICADE, ICAI,
Universidad Pontificia de Comillas de Madrid
- Oradora de Inglés para la Facultad de Filosofía y Letras-Traducción e Interpretación, Universidad Pontificia de Comillas de Madrid
- Profesora/Coordinadora del programa de inglés en Telefónica Servicios Avanzados de Información (TSAI) y Telefónica Data, Future Training
- Profesora de Inglés de Educación Secundaria en el Instituto 'Antonio Domínguez Ortiz' de Madrid
- 1997 Profesora de Inglés de Educación Secundaria en los Institutos Ramiro de Maeztu y Salvador Dalí de Madrid
- Interinidades que fueron el resultado de haber aprobado la Oposición de Profesores de Educación Secundaria en la especialidad de inglés, con una puntuación de 7'5/10
- 1976-1997 Directora y Profesora de Inglés de Quinn Languages, S.L. entre cuyas compañías y escuelas clientes se encuentran: Consejo de Seguridad Nuclear, Andersen Consulting (Accenture), IBM, Kraft General Foods, Crandon College, Lotus, Arthur Andersen (Garrigues), Beecham

CONGRESOS

- 2016 Poster “Is negative lexical transfer truly negative?” Workshop on Crosslinguistic Influence: Working with Crosslinguistic Effects in the Classroom LASLAB, Universidad de Vitoria
- 2014 Presentación “Lexical Transfer in the spoken interlanguage of USA L1-English speakers-learners of L2-Spanish” y moderadora, II Congreso internacional Nebrija en Lingüística aplicada a la enseñanza de lenguas, Universidad Antonio de Nebrija
- 2013 Participación en el VII Encuentro Universitario de Traducción e Interpretación Profesional, Universidad Antonio de Nebrija
- 2012 Moderadora y colaboradora, I Congreso Internacional Nebrija en Lingüística Aplicada a la Enseñanza de Lenguas

